The fifth volume of the introduction to psychology and leadership course (see the final reports which summarize the development project, EM 010 418, EM 010 419, and EM 010 484) concentrates on military management and is presented in three separate documents. It is a self-instructional text with audiotape and panelbook sections. EM 010 429 and EM 010 431 are the first and third parts of the volume, and EM 010 421 through EM 010 447 and EM 010 451 through EM 010 512 are related documents. (SH)
Introduction To Psychology And Leadership

Volume V-B

Military Management
INTRODUCTION TO PSYCHOLOGY AND LEADERSHIP

PART FIVE

MILITARY MANAGEMENT

Segments VII, VIII, IX & X

Volume V-B

WESTINGHOUSE LEARNING CORPORATION
Annapolis, Maryland
1971
TABLE OF CONTENTS

with Margin Index

PART FIVE/VII Foreword .............. ix
PART FIVE/VII Audio Panel Book .... 1
PART FIVE/VII Progress Check ....... 1
PART FIVE/VII Audio Script ....... 1

PART FIVE/VIII Foreword .............. iii
PART FIVE/VIII Audio Panel Book .... 1
PART FIVE/VIII Progress Check ....... 1
PART FIVE/VIII Audio Script ....... 1

PART FIVE/IX Foreword .............. iii

-iii-
TABLE OF CONTENTS

with Margin Index

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PART FIVE/IX Audio Panel Book</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PART FIVE/IX Progress Check</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PART FIVE/IX Audio Script</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PART FIVE/X Foreword</td>
<td>iii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PART FIVE/X Audio Panel Book</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PART FIVE/X Progress Check</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PART FIVE/X Audio Script</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Program Frame Answers</td>
<td>iii</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
INTRODUCTION TO PSYCHOLOGY AND LEADERSHIP

PART FIVE
MILITARY MANAGEMENT

Segment VII
Organizing: Charting

Audio Panel Book
(HAPB)

WESTINGHOUSE LEARNING CORPORATION
Annapolis, Maryland
1971
FOREWORD

"The structuring of an organization should never be done except in terms of objectives to be achieved. Too often the organization chart is planned and executed in a vacuum."

Seckler-Hudson

In this segment you will learn how to use the previously taught material on organizing to help you draw a valid picture of the organization. The advantages and disadvantages of charting and how a chart may help a leader by providing him much useful information at a glance will be discussed. You will learn that the type of organization and its mission will affect the type of information and the detail necessary in charting an organization. You should remember that the organization chart is just a functional picture of the organization and that people run the organization, not charts.

There are two types of materials that can be used for this segment and segments VIII, IX, and X. If the student is assigned an audio tape track, he will follow the instruction with an audio tape and appropriate panel booklet. If the student is assigned the alternate track, he will cover the same material by use of a Syndactic Text, similar to the material presented in Part Two, segments II, III, IV, and V.
Question 1.
Which one of the following statements is incorrect?

a. An organizational chart can correct false assumptions about an organization.

b. An organization chart should portray all aspects of an organization so that no uncertainties remain.

c. An organizational chart is limited in its usefulness because it fails to reveal all human relationships.
Item 1.

PURPOSES OF CHARTS

1. PROVIDE A BASIS FOR PLANNING
2. RECOGNIZE FLAWS AND STRENGTHS IN ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE
3. DETERMINE LINES OF FORMAL AUTHORITY AND RESPONSIBILITY
4. PROVIDE AN ORIENTATION TO VISITORS, INSPECTORS, OR NEW MEMBERS OF THE ORGANIZATION
Question 2.
Which one of the following is a valid purpose of organization charts?

a. Charts relieve management of supervisory problems in the organization.
b. Charts reduce likelihood of informal relationships.
c. Charts delineate lines of authority.
Question 3.

Which one of the following is a limitation of organization charts?

a. Organization charts cannot portray interpersonal relationships in the organization.

b. Organization charts cannot illustrate functional interrelationships in the organization.

c. Organization charts cannot show where individuals are assigned.
ITEM 2.

STRUCTURAL CHART

- COMPANY
  - PLATOON
    - SQUAD
    - SQUAD
    - SQUAD
  - PLATOON
    - SQUAD
    - SQUAD
    - SQUAD
  - PLATOON
    - SQUAD
    - SQUAD
    - SQUAD
Question 4.

Which statement describes a characteristic of a structural organization chart?

a. Structural charts differ with the size of the organization.

b. Structural charts indicate the roles that the various components of an organization play.

c. Structural charts show command relationships.

d. Structural charts explain how an organization functions.
ORGANIZING: CHARTING

Item 3.

FUNCTIONAL CHART

MILITARY PERSONNEL DEPARTMENT

PLANS, DIRECTS, AND COORDINATES
A CENTRALIZED MILITARY PERSONNEL
PROGRAM

PERSONNEL ACCOUNTING
AND RECORDS DIVISION

COMPILES, BY MACHINE
METHODS, A VARIETY
OF PERSONNEL REPORTS

EDUCATIONAL AND
INSURANCE DIVISION

ADMINISTERS
EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS
ADVISES ON INSURANCE
MATTERS
### Item 4.

#### WATCH, QUARTER AND STATION BILL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DIVISION</th>
<th>BATTLE</th>
<th>WATCH</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BILL NUMBER</td>
<td>NAME</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RESTING &amp; LOCKER</td>
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<td>CLEANSING &amp; MAINTENANCE</td>
<td></td>
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<td>CONDITION I (Normal Quarters)</td>
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<td>CONDITION II (BB, CA, CI, SO, only)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>CONDITION III (Marine Curfew)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
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<td>CONDITION IV (Provision Curfew)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CONDITION V (In-port)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### OPERATIONAL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SPECIAL SEA DETAIL</th>
<th>FUELING &amp; TRANSFER DETAIL</th>
<th>RESCUE &amp; ASSISTANCE</th>
<th>LANDING PARTY</th>
<th>D/R VISIT &amp; SEARCH INBOARDING &amp; SALVAGE OF PRIZE CREW</th>
<th>GENERAL EMERGENCY</th>
<th>EMERGENCY STATION (WHEN ASSIGNED)</th>
<th>OWN SHIP SALVAGE DETAIL</th>
<th>UNDERWAY</th>
<th>IN PORT</th>
<th>MAN OVERBOARD</th>
</tr>
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</tbody>
</table>

#### EMERGENCY

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<tr>
<th>FIRE</th>
<th>EMERGENCY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>UNDERWAY</td>
</tr>
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<td>Provide</td>
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Question 5.

An inspector suspects that the cost of operating the Supply Section is too high.

Which chart would provide him the most information in this investigation?

a. Structural
b. Functional
c. Billet assignment or position
Question 6.

A seaman has a request that can be approved only by the Commanding Officer.

What chart indicates the channels through which the request must go?

a. Structural
b. Functional
c. Billet assignment or position
Question 7.

Which chart lists the personnel assigned to the medical officer?

a. Structural
b. Functional
c. Billet assignment or position
Item 5.

Administrative Services Division responsible for activity mail, communications, files, office equipment and supplies.

- Office Methods Branch
- Service and Supply Branch
  - Service Section
  - Supply Section

Functional

Structural
CHARACTERISTICS OF A GOOD CHART

1. Completeness
2. Simplicity
3. Clarity
4. Symmetry
5. Unity
Item 8.

UNITY

C.O. SPECIAL BEACH UNIT

- OPN. PLAT
- SUPPLY AND MAINTENANCE
- MEDICAL PLAT
- H Q PLAT

- HVY EQUIP REPAIR
- COMM ELECTRONIC
- LONGSHORE MEN
- WAREHOUSE

PERS. ADMIN
Question 8.

Which one of the following is a criterion for a good organization chart?

a. A chart must contain only enough detail to suit the purposes of the chart.

b. A chart should be able to pinpoint the cause of a breakdown of communications anywhere in the organization.

c. A chart should contain detailed information concerning the existing interpersonal relationships.
Question 9.
Which criterion should an organization chart meet to be considered adequately simple and clear?

a. The chart should contain few elements.
b. The chart should be arranged to eliminate confusing, complicating, or inappropriate information.
c. Explanatory notes should be considered undesirable.
d. Abbreviations should be avoided where possible.
Question 10.
Which of the following is essential to make a chart clear?

a. All boxes should be labeled clearly.
b. Abbreviations should be familiar to all users.
c. Lines should not cross.
d. All of the above
Item 9.

ORGANIZING: CHARTS

CO

EXEC

OPERATIONS  NAV.  WEAPONS  ENGR.

SUPPLY  MEDICAL  DENTAL
Item 10.

- COMMANDING OFFICER
  - EXECUTIVE OFFICER
    - CHAPLAIN
      - WEAPONS OFFICER
      - CHIEF ENGINEER
      - OPERATIONS OFFICER
        - "B" DIVISION OFFICER
        - "M" DIVISION OFFICER

- DIRECT AUTHORITY
- STAFF ADVISORY NATURE
Item 11.

- COMMANDING OFFICER
- EXECUTIVE OFFICER
- SPECIAL SERVICES OFFICER
- CHIEF ENGINEER
  - "B" DIVISION OFFICER
  - "B" DIVISION REPRESENTATIVE
  - "M" DIVISION OFFICER
  - "M" DIVISION REPRESENTATIVE

Direct Authority

Functional Authority
Question 11.
Which is portrayed in the following chart?

- Lines of direct authority
- Units of equivalent authority
- Lines of staff authority
- All of the above
ORGANIZING: CHARTING

Question 12.

Which statement about charts is true?

a. Dotted lines represent lines of functional authority.

b. Units with varying degrees of authority may be shown by drawing them on the same horizontal plane.

c. Informal structure does not appear on organization charts.

d. Alternating dots and dashes show staff (advisory) relationships.
Item 12.

KEY POINTS CHECK LIST IN THE CONSTRUCTION OF CHARTS

1. Does it show existing levels and lines of authority?
2. Does it follow standard terminology?
3. Are all components included?
4. Does the chart show which are staff and which are operating components?
5. Are functions adequately described?
6. Does the chart exhibit completeness, simplicity, clarity, symmetry, and unity?
Question 13.

Which of the following questions is most applicable to the check list?

a. Are all activities described fully?

b. Are future levels and lines of authority shown?

c. Are all components included?

d. Are all purposes and objectives of each element of the command shown?
Question 14.

Which one of the following is true?

a. Charts show human relationships if properly displayed.
b. Charts ensure good management procedures.
c. Completed charts are static instruments.
d. Charts which are initially prepared appropriately do not require revision later.
Question 15. Which of the following statements is correct?

a. Organization charts are dynamic.

b. Organization charts portray formal structure, not informal structure.

c. An organization chart simplifies the development of human relations.

d. Status is shown by the lines of authority on a chart.
Question 16.

Which of the following is most applicable to organization charts?

a. Charts usually can solve organization problems if people will only let them.

b. Charts are dynamic instruments of an organization.

c. Charts cannot ensure good management or successful operations.

d. Well-constructed charts are highly accurate pictures of a total organization.
United States Naval Academy

INTRODUCTION TO PSYCHOLOGY AND LEADERSHIP

PART FIVE
MILITARY MANAGEMENT

Segment VII
Organizing: Charting

Progress Check

WESTINGHOUSE LEARNING CORPORATION
Annapolis, Maryland
1971
Question 1.

Select the statement which correctly describes the purposes of organization charts.

a. Organization charts clearly show lines of authority; portray the formal organization; facilitate understanding of difficult informal relationships.

b. Organization charts are tools to assist management; portray the formal organization; show how the organization actually operates.

c. Organization charts portray the formal organization; facilitate understanding of difficult informal organizational concepts; clearly show lines of authority.

d. Organization charts clearly show lines of authority; are tools to assist management; portray the formal organization.
Question 2.
Which of the following statements best describes the limitations of organization charts as far as "real" versus "portrayed" organization is concerned?

a. They show structure, chain of command, and actual operation, but not the human element involved in management.
b. They show structure, the human element in management, and the chain of command, but not the actual operation.
c. They show structure and chain of command, but neither the human element involved, nor the actual operation.
d. They show structure, but not the human element in management, the chain of command, or the actual operation.

Question 3.
Select the statement which correctly describes the influence of organization charts on the quality of the organization itself and the quality of management.

a. Organization charts will insure a good formal organization, and provide insight into the formal organization. They have no effect on management.
b. Organization charts only provide insight into the formal organization. They do not insure either a good formal organization or good management.
c. Organization charts provide insight into the formal organization and insure good management. They do not insure a good formal organization.
d. Organization charts insure a good formal organization and good management. They provide no insight into the formal organization.
Question 4.

Which of the following items correctly lists types of charts in the following order: structural, functional, billet assignment, combination?

a. Ship's organization; personnel assigned; deck division duties; organization and functions.
b. Organization and functions; deck division duties; personnel assigned; ship's organization.
c. Ship's organization; deck division duties; organization and functions; personnel assigned.
d. Ship's organization; deck division duties; personnel assigned; organization and functions.

Question 5.

Which of the following statements correctly lists the characteristics of structural charts?

a. Structural charts show the structure of an organization, are relatively independent of organization size, and indicate interrelationships of functions.
b. Structural charts show the structure of an organization, show basic relationships among components, and can show functions as well as structures.
c. Structural charts show the structure of an organization as well as the functions, show basic relationships among components, and are relatively independent of organization size.
d. Structural charts show the structure of an organization, are relatively independent of organization size, and show basic relationships among components.
Question 6.

The chart above lacks one characteristic of a good organization chart. Identify the missing characteristic.

a. Simplicity
b. Clarity
c. Symmetry
d. Unity
Question 7.

One of the characteristics of a good organization chart is completeness.

Which of the following shows the requirement(s) to make a chart complete?

a. The chart must show all components of the organization and their relationships to other organizations.

b. The chart must be verified as accurate and current, indicate the date prepared and carry with it the signature of the Commanding Officer.

c. The chart must identify all components involved and show their relationships.

d. Both b and c above
Which of the following statements best describes the chart above?

a. B has a staff (advisory) relationship to D and E. C functions part-time as H.

b. B has functional authority over D and E. C has a staff (advisory) relationship to H.

c. B functions part-time as D and E. C has a staff (advisory) relationship to H.

d. B has a staff (advisory) relationship to D and E. C has functional authority over H.
Question 9.

A check list should be used to ensure proper development of a good organization chart.

Which of the following questions would not be included in such a check list?

- a. Is standard terminology used?
- b. Are all components included?
- c. Are functions adequately described?
- d. Does the chart satisfy all potential users?

Question 10.

Which type of organization chart is shown below?

Diagram:

- Brigade Commander
  - Rgmt CDR
    - BN CDR
    - BN CDR
    - BN CDR
  - Rgmt CDR
    - BN CDR
    - BN CDR
    - BN CDR

- a. Structural
- b. Functional
- c. Billet assignment or position
- d. Combination
<table>
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<tr>
<th>ITEM</th>
<th>ANSWER</th>
<th>REMEDIATION REFERENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>Pages 1-2</td>
</tr>
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<td>2</td>
<td>c</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>Pages 2-4</td>
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<td>Pages 2-4</td>
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<td>6</td>
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<td>Pages 4-7</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>Pages 4-5</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>Pages 6-8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
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<td>Page 8; also page 24 (HAPB)</td>
</tr>
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</tr>
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</tbody>
</table>
INTRODUCTION TO PSYCHOLOGY
AND LEADERSHIP

ORGANIZING: CHARTING

When you move into a new organization, you will want to know such things as: Who runs this outfit? Whom do you see to get something accomplished? What is the role of that person? How do you find the answers to these questions? If you depended on the answers of individuals, you would get conflicting answers. LT Smith may direct you to do one job and you start to comply because he is senior to you; LT Brown may tell you to do another job instead and he is your immediate superior. Without a formal organization chart, you run the risk of making serious mistakes: of going to the wrong person or wasting time in trying to get coordination. For lack of a clear picture of your newly assigned organization, you assume (erroneously) that this is like previous outfits you have been in. An organization chart is a device for portraying the formal organization. It should be explicit, especially in areas where possibilities exist for plausible but incorrect assumptions. It is important that all individuals connected with the organization interpret the chart correctly. In a military management setting, it is urgent that lines of authority be clearly delineated. An organization chart quickly and accurately portrays this structure.
A navigator needs to know how to use charts to guide his ship; you, too, will need to know how to use charts to guide you in an organization. There are some precautions to consider as we discuss organization charts. The chart does not by itself insure good management. It may show the formal chain of command within an organization, but it can never portray the human element involved in management nor tell how the organization actually operates. An organization chart is unable to describe the "informal" organization which is always present. The chart is impersonal in nature, and is a "tool" to assist management rather than a cure-all for the problems of management. (Pause)

Organization charts are a useful tool, but are they essential to success? One can always find examples of enterprises that have survived without them. But today, in large organizations, including the Navy, the organization chart has become an indispensable graphic portrayal of certain aspects of the organization. Here at the Academy, and later in the Fleet, you will make use of organization charts. (Pause)

Now look at item 1.

Charts can do several things. But seldom can one chart do all of them. Hence, there are several kinds of charts. A chart may be excellent for one purpose and useless for another. The charts most used to portray military organization are:

(1) structural charts, showing the structure of a command;
(2) functional charts, illustrating the interrelationships of functions; and (3) billet assignment or position charts, showing personnel position assignments. One can combine two or more of these types in a single chart, but this is rarely necessary or desirable. A basic principle of graphic presentation is simplicity. Combining several types in one chart tends to create confusion rather than clarity. (Pause)

Structural charting is the most common and simplified method used by the Navy. Let us examine first a structural chart of a company organization at the Naval Academy. (Pause)

Now look at Item 2.

As its name implies, this chart shows the structure of a command and outlines the basic relationships among components. One characteristic of a structural chart is its relative independence of organizational size; it makes little difference to the charting requirement whether the organization is a large aircraft carrier or a small coastal patrol boat. (Pause)

A functional chart tells what the units in an organization do. (Pause)

Now look at Item 3.

There is, of course, some semblance to the structural chart, in that boxes are connected. But the emphasis is different.
Structural detail is minimized. There are fewer boxes shown, but those shown are bigger and contain descriptions of the functions of the units. An example of this may be seen in chapter one of any ship's organization and regulations manual. The billet assignment or position chart is the third common type of chart.

Now look at Item 4.

The Watch, Quarter and Station Bill on board a ship is an example of this type, for it shows the names, billets, and titles or grades of personnel as they fit into the current organizational plan. The people occupying certain billets may change, but billet conditions do not change. Names are included, but may be changed as personnel change. They are included in a manner that makes them easily changed.

Combination charts may be useful if they are kept simple, but when they start to become complex they lose clarity. Therefore, they should be used sparingly.

Now look at Item 5. This is a combination of a structural and functional chart.

In your careers as naval officers, you will find it necessary to prepare charts. The main characteristics of a good organization chart are: (1) Completeness (2) Simplicity (3) Clarity (4) Symmetry (5) Unity.
Now look at Item 6.

First, Completeness. As a full graphic display of the organization, the chart must identify all desired components and their major relationships. To be complete, all information must be verified as accurate and current. The chart should indicate the date prepared and carry with it the signature of the Commanding Officer. Second, Simplicity. Details not needed to meet the desired purpose should be left out. The purpose of the chart should govern what is included and what is left out. If the chart is to display command relationships, for example, it should not include informal relationships or descriptions of functions. Third, Clarity. A chart is a means of communications. If it is not clear, it may be worthless or even detrimental. Boxes should be labeled clearly. Abbreviations should be used only when all users know their meanings. Short explanatory notes may be necessary. Lines should not cross. (Pause)

Now look at Item 7.

Fourth, Symmetry. Item 7 shows a badly presented chart. Boxes are not well-centered. There is a resulting confusion: some boxes are shown directly above boxes which do not have any command relationship to them. A symmetrical (or balanced) presentation would clear up this confusion. (Pause)
Now look at Item 8.

Fifth, Unity. All units on a chart must be linked together and shown as a single organization. From each box one must be able to trace a relationship to every other box. (Pause)

A great benefit from an organization chart may come during its preparation. At this time the organization will be subjected to objective and critical analyses, primarily to achieve an understanding that will permit a correct chart to be prepared; but the very act of charting may disclose some unclear areas of jurisdiction or awkward relationships. Some people believe that chart and job descriptions are only tools for describing the current organization or a proposed one, but that they do not tell us how a group of any kind should be organized. While this is quite true of completed charts, the initial preparation can tell us a great deal about both the faults and the strengths in an organizational structure, and can indicate which realignments should be requested, authorized and effected. We must not fall into the trap of confusing an organization chart with an organization. One cannot drive an automobile on the road map anymore than the organization chart itself will accomplish organizational goals. Any organization, civilian or naval, is a set of understandings, assumptions, duties, responsibilities and behavior patterns of the total group of people attached to that organization. Some of these are formal, authorized and accepted parts of the
Command. But human relations always exist informally as living, changing elements possessing great flexibility and adaptability. One author refers to the "semipermanent formal organization structure" as a way to emphasize the constantly changing nature of even the formal structure. (Pause)

The foregoing general features of good charting provide basic rules for constructing charts, but there are practical considerations that apply to exceptional situations. Charting rules are not "hard and fast" but must be applied with discretion and common sense.

Units of equivalent authority usually are shown on the chart by drawing them on the same horizontal plane. (Pause)

Now look at Item 9. (Pause 6 sec)

Line and Staff. It is useful for a chart to distinguish line and staff relationships.

Now look at Item 10.

This figure includes both line and staff relationships. The solid lines indicate lines of direct authority. The dashed line indicates that the relationship between the officers involved, the chaplain and the "B" Division Officer, is of a staff (advisory) nature.

Now look at Item 11.

Functional Authority. Just as we have a special way to distinguish line and staff relationships, there is a specific
way to show functional authority. Alternating dots and dashes are used to provide a line of functional authority wherein the officer has power over functions undertaken by personnel not in his own department. For example, the Special Services Officer might be connected with dots and dashes to the "B" and "M" Division representatives of the Recreation Committee. (Pause)

At this time, let us summarize some key points in construction of charts, by posing a series of check-list type questions. Such a check-list will help you focus on the main principles of this series of lessons on organization, and will help to insure that the chart embodies the necessary features. (Pause)

Now look at Item 12.

There are definite limitations to organization charts, and serious misconceptions can arise from their incautious use. Experts repeatedly warn about assuming that an improvement in the chart automatically improves the efficiency and effectiveness of an organization. After a chart has been prepared and approved, it becomes a static instrument; the organization, involving humans as well as other resources, is dynamic, interacting and constantly changing in several directions. Therefore, it is essential to keep revising the chart as the organization changes. (Pause)

In this lesson, you have learned about many uses of charting, and have acquired some practical rules for constructing good
charts. Specific guidelines have been developed for charting situations which face the naval officer. Charts are brief, clear ways to display an organization's characteristics for a variety of uses. "Perfect" charts do not exist. The Navy finds that the structural, functional, and billet assignment or position charts are most applicable to its needs. The good chart will strive for clarity, simplicity, completeness, symmetry and unity. Organization charts should be considered semipermanent, at best, and subject to regular revision after careful analysis of the organization as a dynamic entity. There are dynamic interactions continually occurring within any command. These interactions are referred to as the "informal" organizations and are not reflected in any published chart. Improvements in charts do not automatically improve either the efficiency or effectiveness of the organization. Attainment of these two goals requires more than good charts. However, caution should be exercised in changing any organization. The organization of the Navy has been developed over the years and is the result of much experience and knowhow. Changes come slowly and for specific purposes. (Pause)

This is the end of the Audio Script for Part Five, Segment VII.
INTRODUCTION TO PSYCHOLOGY AND LEADERSHIP

PART FIVE
MILITARY MANAGEMENT

Segment VIII
Directing

Audio Panel Book
(HAPB)

WESTINGHOUSE LEARNING CORPORATION
Annapolis, Maryland
1971
FOREWORD

"The way to be nothing is to do nothing."

Edgar N. Howe

This segment will show you how to convert plans and decisions into purposeful action, thus providing a bridge between preparation of plans and achievement of objectives. You will become familiar with how decisions are made and what facets must be considered for proper directing. You will gain an understanding of such factors as environment, technique, and emphasis, and their part in the process of directing. The relationship of directing to leadership and management will be covered to help you familiarize yourself with this primary part of the military management process.
Item I.
Item 2.
DIRECTING

FIVE/VIII/HAPB

Item 3.
Question 1.

Which one of the following best identifies the importance of directing to a military leader?

a. Directing is important because directing can compensate for inadequate planning.

b. Directing is important because it makes for heightened morale.

c. Directing is important because it actuates a plan towards accomplishment of objectives.

d. Directing is important because good directing results in early feedback to permit revision of plans and organization.
Question 2.

Which one of the following is the **best** definition of directing?

a. The process of issuing orders, announcing decisions, and following through on details

b. The dynamic function that converts plans into purposeful action, providing a bridge between planning and achievement of objectives

c. The act of executing orders and carrying out commands which have been issued by your superiors

d. The final phase of preparation which enables you to achieve the desired objectives
Question 3.

Which one of the following is the best description of the relationship between giving orders and the actuating phase in the management process?

a. Giving orders precedes the actuating phase.
b. Giving orders is the actuating phase.
c. Giving orders is not necessary to set in motion the actuating phase.
d. Giving orders is only partially related to the actuating phase.
Item 5.

REQUIREMENTS FOR GOOD DIRECTING

1. Feasibility of accomplishment
2. Clear, concise orders compatible with objectives
3. Effective leadership
4. Good communication
5. Empathy, self-awareness, and objectivity
Question 4.

Which one of the following best identifies a requirement for good directing?

a. Good directing requires constant surveillance of subordinates' activities.

b. Good directing requires highly motivated subordinates.

c. Good directing first requires good planning and organization.

d. Good directing requires the use of the right combination of motivation and legal authority for the particular situation.
Question 5.

Which statement best describes the relationship between directing and the environment in which it takes place?

a. The leader transmits and the subordinate receives.

b. The leader interacts with subordinates and feedback may require changes in his plans.

c. The leader is not dependent upon the subordinate though the subordinate depends upon the leader.

d. Superiors and subordinates are equally dependent upon one another.
DIRECTING

Item 6.

WORK-RELATED NEEDS OF INDIVIDUALS

1. Opportunity
2. Recognition
3. Belonging
4. Security
Creating the Proper Environment

1. Clarify authority relationships.
2. Explain policies, procedures and instructions to be followed by everyone under the superior's command.
3. Explain reasons and purposes for directions.
4. Instill set of beliefs in subordinates.
Item 8.
Question 6.

Which one of the following correctly describes the relationship between directing and the environment in which it occurs?

a. Directing can be good regardless of the environment in which it occurs.

b. Effective directing recognizes the importance of feedback, superior-subordinate dependency and motivation in the setting in which it takes place.

c. Effective directing cannot occur if the leader is not strong-willed enough to place himself above environmental factors.
Question 7.

A deck division on a LPA had low morale. Routine operations were performed in a sloppy manner, the living compartment was dirty and the personal appearance of the men was deplorable. Several near-accidents occurred in handling boats because the men were inattentive to detail.

Which is the best course of action for the division officer to take?

a. Direct the petty officers to curtail liberty until the division spaces are cleaned and work productivity increases

b. Counsel the petty officers on their responsibilities, set standards and guide the personnel until the standards are attained

c. Appeal to the better nature of the men and extoll them to perform their tasks correctly

d. Call the division together and explain about the mission of the ship, relating it to national goals, and appeal to the men's patriotism
Item 9.
Item 10.
Item 11.

IMPLICATIONS OF UNDERDIRECTING

1. Superior may appear indecisive
2. Subordinates may be uncertain as to tasks and their priorities
3. Unit objectives may become fragmented and uncoordinated
Question 8.

The Weapons Officer on a DDG says to his men, "The main battery is in terrible shape. Square it away now."

In which one of the following examples is implication of such underdirecting found?

a. The men feel that the Weapons Officer wouldn't know a battery "in good shape" if he saw one.

b. The men do not know exactly what the Weapons Officer felt had to be corrected in the battery.

c. The men are unsure whether they should abandon the tasks they are engaged in, in order to follow the new order.

d. All of the above
Which one of the following is an example of underdirecting?

a. The Division Officer did not inspect the living quarters during his below-decks inspection.

b. The Division Officer issued a notice saying that an AA practice would be held the next day, "in accordance with the general requirements of Naval regulations," and that all hands should be ready.

c. The Division Officer asked his CO for a recommendation before signing the request for liberty.

d. The Division Officer directed his 25 man working party to strike down the ammunition.
Item 12.

**IMPLICATIONS OF OVERDIRECTING**

1. May stifle initiative among subordinates
2. Superior may appear to instruct subordinates
3. Superior may appear to underrate his subordinates
4. May appear to stifle creativity
5. May reduce loyalty to organization and to superior
Question 10.

A CPO on a destroyer regularly overdirects his crew.

Which one of the following should you consider to be an implication of his overdirecting?

a. The CPO readily discusses things with his Division Officer.

b. The CPO is popular because the men know what’s expected of them.

c. The CPO leaves details to his section petty officers.

d. Initiative among his subordinates appears to be at a lower level than among the men of other divisions.
Question 11.

Which one of the following is an example of overdirecting?

- a. The Division Officer advises his CPO how many men to use on a shipboard task.
- b. The Division Officer signs the liberty request.
- c. The Division Officer reviews a man's service record.
- d. The Division Officer calls his CPO to his stateroom for a conference.
Question 12.

Which one of the following descriptions of a leader performing the functions of management most involves directing?

a. Leader discusses objectives with key subordinates.
b. Leader develops plan to accomplish objectives.
c. Leader organizes subordinates into functional groups.
d. Leader converts plans and decisions into purposeful action.
INTRODUCTION TO PSYCHOLOGY AND LEADERSHIP

PART FIVE
MILITARY MANAGEMENT

Segment VIII
Directing

Progress Check

WESTINGHOUSE LEARNING CORPORATION
Annapolis, Maryland
1971
DIRECTING

PROGRESS CHECK

Question 1.
Select the statement which identifies the importance of directing to a military leader.

a. Directing is important because military leaders have to issue orders.

b. Directing is important because of the impossibility of foreseeing all contingencies in planning.

c. Directing is important because it activates a plan towards accomplishment of objectives.

d. Directing is important because it is a dynamic function that activates the achieving of objectives by motivating proper planning.

Question 2.
Select the correct definition of directing.

a. The process of issuing directives (oral or written)

b. The process of converting plans into purposeful action

c. The process of interpreting orders

d. The initial phase of program development
Question 3.
Which of the following is necessary for creating a proper environment for directing?

a. Creation of a friendly atmosphere
b. Explanation of reasons and purposes of directions
c. Installation of a spirit of obedience regardless of the reasons or purposes of the direction
d. All of the above

Question 4.
The Operations Officer has heard that one of his Division Officers has created much dissatisfaction among his men because of a tendency to over-direct.

Other symptoms of over-directing might be:

a. Subordinates will take more pride in their work because of the close supervision.
b. Subordinates will set their own standards higher than those established by the leader.
c. Subordinates most likely will lose the sense of challenge they would have in implementing new directives.
d. Subordinates loyalty to organization will be increased because they know their leader cares.
Question 5.

The commander of a specialized office was correct in his assumption that his men were highly intelligent and well trained. He then followed a laissez-faire leadership pattern which caused each section of his office to operate independently.

What is the implication of this type of directing?

a. Office objectives may become fragmented and uncoordinated.

b. Poor communication may impair operation.

c. Creativity may be stifled.

d. Loyalty may be reduced.

Question 6.

Which of the following is a symptom of overdirecting?

a. Poor esprit de corps

b. Indecisive behavior by subordinates

c. Confusion of unit goals

d. Uncoordinated objectives
Question 7.
Which of the following actions by a Midshipman Regimental Commander could best be described as directing?

a. Preparing a list of primary goals of the Regiment

b. Recommending to the Brigade Commander that the Regimental staff be increased

c. Delegating to one of his assistants the authority to ensure that reports of athletic participation are received from the battalions on time

d. Writing a memorandum to each Battalion Commander stating the time and place for formation and the route to be followed in marching to the stadium
### PROGRESS CHECK ANSWER AND REMEDIATION FORM

**PART Five  SEGMENT VIII**

**REMEDICATION TEXT Audio Script - Volume V-B**

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<th>REMEDIATION REFERENCE</th>
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<td>1</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>b</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>Pages 7-10</td>
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INTRODUCTION TO PSYCHOLOGY AND LEADERSHIP

PART FIVE
MILITARY MANAGEMENT

Segment VIII
Directing

Audio Script
(LATS)

WESTINGHOUSE LEARNING CORPORATION
Annapolis, Maryland
1971
INTRODUCTION TO PSYCHOLOGY
AND LEADERSHIP

DIRECTING

Up to now in considering the role of the military manager we have been concerned with the preparatory functions of planning and organizing which precede the execution of any task. But all the effort we expend in preparation is wasted unless it is implemented into action. This is where direction comes into play. (Pause)

Now look at Item 1.

It shows the relationship of directing to the management wheel. Visualize, if you will, the complete chaos which would accompany embarking on your summer cruise if, although the planning and organizing had been accomplished in an outstanding manner, there was inadequate direction of the actual operation. It is the purpose of this lesson to examine in detail the function of directing, to outline its position in the overall picture of military management, and to assist you in improving your performance as a military manager—now, as a midshipman, and in your career in the years to come. Your individual proficiency as a leader can be improved through experience and training, but it must be based on knowledge of the factors involved in leading and directing. (Pause)
Now look at Item 2.

Directing is the dynamic function that converts plans and decisions into purposeful action, thereby providing a bridge between the preparation of plans and the achievement of objectives. If you are elected the editor of Peef Points, you will no doubt spend considerable time in thinking about and planning the steps you will take to make your edition the best that has ever been issued. Toward this end, you will then organize a staff and appoint other midshipmen to fill the various posts of Business Manager, Sports Editor and so forth. But to realize that goal of yours, you have to direct your new staff so that you can convert your ideas into a realized accomplishment. Directing, then, is the actuating phase—the specific giving of the order—in the overall management process which uses resources to gain specific objectives. Now, when we give the order, we test the accuracy of our prior estimates as to the capability of our resources to achieve our objectives. We test our assumptions as to timing, the level at which our people perform, and the functioning of equipment. And, as we observe how well our resources perform, we are getting the needed feedback to see if we must revise our objectives. Let's take an example. (Pause)
Now look at Item 3.

You are a destroyer division officer. In just two hours the ship will go to general quarters, and you have just directed your fire control technician to perform a maintenance check on a fire-control radar which is required for general quarters. When you gave the order, you set in motion a chain of events which will provide an acid test of the accuracy of your estimates.

Estimates of what? First, the estimate that the check can be accomplished within two hours. Second, the estimate that the radar's performance can be improved by such a brief and hurried check. And third, the estimate that your leading fire control technician will perform at a certain level of capability. If any one of these estimates is incorrect, you will receive feedback showing that your objective will have to be modified to correspond more closely with reality. Again: assume that as assistant weapons officer on a guided missile frigate, you have advised the Weapons Officer that your men will perform certain required test checks on the Terrier Launcher by 1600 tomorrow. Several hours after you have directed your men to start the check, you are advised that they are having trouble with a piece of test equipment and that, even by borrowing a substitute piece of equipment from a sister ship (which you immediately proceed to do), they are still not going to be able to make up the lost time, and will not be able to complete the checks before 1200 a day later. In view of the negative
character of the feedback you receive about the performance of resources (in this case, defective test equipment), you must revise your objective and so inform the Weapons Officer. The ability to direct something—and keep in mind our definition of bridging the gap between preparation and achieving an objective—is of extreme importance to the military leader. During wartime it is vital that war plans be executed with precision. Failure to carry out a plan because of poor direction is sure to result in an inadequate, and probably catastrophic, operation. The need to execute well is just as apparent, though less costly, in peacetime.

(Pause)

Now look at Item 4.

Although the assignment of other shipboard duties may be carefully planned and the assignments of manpower to specific details well-organized, unless action is properly directed the chances of getting a particular job done in a smart, safe manner are practically nil. (Pause)

Having defined just what directing is and having recognized its place in the management process, let us next discuss some key requirements that are considered fundamental to good directing. (Pause)
Now look at Item 5.

Here we see five requirements for good directing. First: the feasibility of accomplishment. Will existing resources permit the accomplishment of the objective? Is the "order" that gets the action started a reasonable order in the sense that compliance can be expected, or is it unreasonable. Are the resources available? Do subordinates have the physical and mental ability to do the task? This requirement is in accord with the key leadership factor which states: "An effective leader employs his unit in accordance with its capabilities." Second: Are the orders, in whatever form issued, clear, complete and concise? Do they specify when the action is to be accomplished? Do all people who need to know "get the word"? Are the orders compatible with organizational objectives? Third: Is the leadership effective in motivating the subordinate to accomplish the objective? The leader must use the right combination of motivation and authority depending upon the situation and the superior-subordinate relationship. In other words, don't try to appeal to the creative ability of your men when you want them to wash paint work. On the other hand, don't summarily order your leading chief petty officer to calibrate the radar without explaining that you need an accurate measurement as soon as possible and that he can do the job better than anyone else under him can. Fourth: Is there adequate interpersonal communication? Picture yourself in a subordinate's position where you rarely communicate with your immediate superior.
How well can you really understand his directives? Can you be sure you know what he really wants? Effective communication not only relays instructions but also reflects previous interactions so that there is a continuous flow in the interchange of information. Communication up and down and across is desirable also because it builds a spirit of belonging in an organization. Fifth: Is the leader considerate of his subordinates? Does he conscientiously make an effort to view things from the other's position? Is he aware of his own limitations and capabilities, and is he completely objective in issuing orders? This requirement is in accord with the key leadership factor which states: "An effective leader treats every person as an individual, not as a number." (Pause)

Although a leadership situation can exist with only two persons interacting—you and a subordinate—most of your future leadership roles will involve considerably more than two persons. Consider the variety of group functions you will encounter onboard ship—bridge watch teams, fireroom watch teams, combat information center watch teams, gun crews, damage control parties. Directing in this type of "multi-interactive" environment involves a network of relationships between a leader and his subordinates in which behavior and plans can be modified through the process of feedback. More than one junior officer has found that an order issued to his division one day had to be altered the next day because his observation of the men's actions in the
interim convinced him that his plan(s) needed modification. Since both the leader and the subordinates share in the knowledge which each party contributes to the total effectiveness, mutual respect is established, and each party relies upon the other. The sailor on the forecastle who can throw the heaving line straight and far is a valuable asset to the Captain, and the Captain who can bring his ship alongside smartly so that a heaving line can easily reach the pier is a valuable aid to the sailor. Each depends upon the other in carrying out the objective of berthing the ship. (Pause)

In an environment characterized by the interaction of the superior and his subordinates, an issue of vital importance to the leader is how to communicate motivation to his men. The leader should realize that people achieve a sense of importance from doing different but essential tasks which implement goals which they and their peers seek. A case in point would be the amount of effort that the Communications Division on a ship is willing to expend in order to win a communications "E." The men in this division gain a sense of worth from their individual contribution to the total effort, and are justifiably proud to wear the "E" on their sleeves. In this instance the motivation is both the reward of an "E" and the sense of achievement the men gain from working together for a common purpose. (Pause)
Now look at Item 6.

As a future naval officer, you must realize that there are certain work-related needs which every individual has and upon which proper motivation works effectively. These needs include opportunity, recognition, belonging and security. All of these needs are found in the Boat-Group Commander in the situation we will now describe. The USS Sarasota is on a good will visit to Sarasota, Florida. The harbor is shallow and the ship must anchor 8 miles offshore. This presents a problem in transporting the crew and civilian visitors to and from the ship. The First Lieutenant tells the Boat-Group Commander to make the necessary arrangements to provide transportation. Additional personnel from the other deck divisions are assigned to the boat group, and the Boat-Group Commander draws up schedules to make sure that an adequate number of boats are available at all times to make the runs, and that they are manned by trained boat crews. When the four-day visit is ended, the local dignitaries commend the Boat-Group Commander for the efficient, courteous service his crews provided. In this example, the Boat-Group Commander was given the opportunity to use his initiative and ingenuity in solving the transportation problem. He received recognition from the local populace. His sense of belonging was increased by the credible showing his liberty boats made. And finally he feels secure
in his work because he received cooperation from those around him and was able to do his job well. A teacher may not be an expert in the subject he is teaching; however, to be successful, he must be expert in communicating his enthusiasm for the subject. So, too, the naval officer must communicate his enthusiasm so that his men are motivated to achieve the desired behavior.

It is useless for the leader to believe in motivating his subordinates if he is not also successful in communicating this motivation to his men. It is a challenge to every leader to find the best way to manipulate environmental factors so as to increase motivation. There are four procedures which can be employed to create the proper environment. (Pause)

Now look at Item 7.

First, if your men don't know who works for whom, to whom they report, who reports to them, and to whom you report, the atmosphere is not favorable to getting things done. As a division officer, make sure that your men know the authority relationships existing not only within your division, but in the ship as well. Second, remember how you appreciated having policies, procedures and standing practices at the Academy, such as the honor concept, explained to you. Similarly, your men will be more responsive if as an officer you take the
time to explain to them the rationale underlying standing operating procedures. Third, you will find that your men will be more productive and happier in their work if they understand the logic behind the orders you give them. The firemen in "M" Division are disgruntled about cleaning the voids. The chore becomes less distasteful to them when they are informed that dirty voids are potential fire hazards and might jeopardize the safety of the entire ship. Fourth, if you can instill in your men the desire to accomplish the assigned task and pride in work well-done, you will have created an environment that will help you to attain your objective. (Pause)

Now look at Item 8.

The Fire Control Officer impresses on his fire control technicians the necessity of an accurate battery alignment check. The competence with which the check is performed will directly affect the accuracy of the firings. The fire control technicians are understandably proud when their guns destroy a target with a minimum number of rounds. Remember that you can't inspire your men unless you yourself are motivated, enthusiastic and willing to work hard. Furthermore, you will find that showing respect for the inherent dignity of man and making use of the principles of human relationships will aid you in properly motivating your subordinates. (Pause)
Assume now that you have defined your objectives, drawn up your plans, and determined which technique of communication, oral or written, to use to convey your instructions. Now you must decide whether your directive suits the situation. Is your directive too detailed in nature so that you are telling your men not only what to do but how to do it? Or, on the other hand, have you been so general in your order that your men do not know exactly what is expected of them? If a certain amount of direction is necessary to ensure accomplishment of the objective then, obviously, the use of any amount less than required is insufficient to get the job done. This situation we shall call underdirecting. Similarly, that situation where more directing is used than is necessary is called overdirecting. An example of underdirecting would be the division officer who told his junior division officer, a new ensign, to inspect the division berthing compartment. The ensign reported that it looked good. (Pause)

Now look at Item 9.

Later in the morning the department head inspected the compartment and found dirt in the corners, bunks improperly made, and personal gear adrift. Clearly, the division officer should have specified what standards were expected and what to look for in the inspection. (Pause)
Now look at Item 10.

Overdirecting was employed by the Deck Division Officer who not only instructed his leading boatswain's mate to paint the fantail, but how to do it. He not only specified when it would be done but by whom, and in what manner. He then supervised the operation personally, correcting each man without going through the boatswain. (Pause) Now, let's examine the implications of underdirecting. (Pause)

Now look at Item 11.

First, if you are too general in your directives, your men may feel that you are uncertain as to just what is to be done and have left it to them to second-guess the solution. Second, your subordinates may be unsure as to exactly what their job is if their instructions have been too vague. Third, if you don't assign task priorities, your subordinates will assign their own. This may result in poorly coordinated work which only partially fulfills objectives. (Pause)

Now look at Item 12.

The opposite situation, overdirecting, has its own set of implications. First, if you keep telling your men how to do everything, they will lose the sense of challenge which most of us have when we receive a new directive which requires the use of initiative. Second, the officer must
avoid explaining to his men things that they already know, as they will resent being talked down to. Third, over-directing may lead the subordinate to believe that his superior underrates him and doesn't use his capabilities to the fullest. Fourth, creativity may be stifled by over-directing--subordinates may feel it is useless to think up new ways of doing things their own way. And fifth, if subordinates feel that they are not being allowed to make a definite contribution to the organization, their loyalty to the organization will be diminished. The errors of under-directing and overdirecting can usually be avoided if the leader is careful to adjust his managerial style to three factors--the objectives of the organization, the capacities of subordinates, and his own personality. (Pause)

Throughout this lesson continued reference has been made to the concept of leadership. Theodore Haiman states in his book, Professional Management, Theory and Practice, that "leadership...(involves) the process by which a (superior) directs, guides and influences the work of others in choosing and attaining specified goals...." The key to successful leadership is good directing because it is people who are being directed. Although the military executive possesses all the necessary authority to ensure strict compliance with orders, his results will be much more effective if he is also a good leader. Recall the
Key Leadership Factor: "Make sure the task is understood, supervised, and accomplished." It should now be clear how important that Factor is to you, in your role as a leader. It is, in essence, the function of directing.

This is the end of the Audio Script of Part Five, Segment VIII.
INTRODUCTION TO PSYCHOLOGY AND LEADERSHIP

PART FIVE
MILITARY MANAGEMENT

Segment IX
Controlling

Audio Panel Book
(HAPB)

WESTINGHOUSE LEARNING CORPORATION
Annapolis, Maryland
1971
FOREWORD

"So You Want A Command? I ask the following question: Can you juggle, at the same time, all the balls of training, maintenance, tests, administration, inspections, communication, messes, supply, athletics, marksmanship, discipline, public relations, without dropping any of them?"

General Bruce C. Clarke, USA (Ret.)

The characteristics of the four basic steps in the controlling system and the importance of this to military management will be covered in this segment. The standards to be set and compared with performance, and familiarity with the necessary corrective action to produce the desired results, will also be discussed. The implications of over- or under-controlling will be studied. The importance of reports to controlling, and their timeliness and accuracy, will be discussed.
CONTROLLING

Item 1.
CONTROLLING IS THE FUNCTION OF EVALUATING THE PERFORMANCE OF SUBORDINATES AND APPLYING CORRECTIVE MEASURES SO THAT PERFORMANCE TAKES PLACE IN ACCORDANCE WITH PLANS
CONTROLLING

Item 3.

STRENGTH OF MOTIVATION

.50

PROBABILITY OF SUCCESS
Item 4.

CONTROLLING KEEPS PLAN ON THE TRACKS

EXECUTION OF PLAN

OBJECTIVE

INTRODUCTION TO PSYCHOLOGY AND LEADERSHIP
CONTROLLING AIDS TO MANAGEMENT

1. AIDS SUPERVISOR BY MEASURING PROGRESS TOWARD GOALS
2. AS A CONTINUING PROCESS, HELPS SUPERVISOR MAINTAIN KNOWLEDGE OF OVERALL ACTIVITY
3. PINPOINTS REASONS FOR DEVIATION IN PERFORMANCE
4. HELPS SUPERVISOR IDENTIFY TRENDS; AND THUS SERVES AS GUIDE FOR FUTURE ACTION
Question 1.

Which one of the following best identifies the importance of controlling to the military supervisor?

a. Controlling helps the supervisor prepare better directives.

b. Controlling eliminates the need to supervise subordinates.

c. Good controlling decreases the time a supervisor needs to spend on leadership.

d. Controlling enables a supervisor to evaluate performance.
Question 2.

Which one of the following best describes the purpose of controlling?

a. To provide a disciplined framework within which the organization is to function
b. To measure progress in achieving organizational goals
c. To standardize all activities of an organization
d. To find out who is at fault when conflicts develop
Item 6.

**CHARACTERISTICS OF A CONTROL SYSTEM**

Controls should:

1. Reflect needs of activity
2. Report deviations promptly
3. Point out exceptions at strategic points
4. Be objective
5. Be flexible
6. Be economical
7. Be understandable
8. Indicate corrective action
Question 3.
Which one of the following best describes the characteristics of a good control system?

a. Decreases the workload of subordinates
b. Points out all deviations from the plan
c. Largely eliminates the need for supervision and speeds up activity
d. Is flexible and understandable
Item 7.

THE BASIC STEPS IN CONTROLLING

1. ESTABLISH STANDARDS
2. MEASURE PERFORMANCE
3. COMPARE PERFORMANCE WITH STANDARDS
4. TAKE CORRECTIVE ACTION
Item 8.

**ESTABLISHING STANDARDS**

1. **Criteria against which results can be measured**
2. **Established in accordance with important outcome characteristics and level of achievement required**
3. **Established to determine ability of individuals and units to perform**
4. **Must be consistent with ultimate objectives**
5. **Supervisor who is responsible for results should specify standards.**
Question 4.

An aircraft carrier is expected to rig for high-line transfers with destroyers within certain standard times. Which one of the following identifies a STANDARD that will aid in the accomplishment of this task?

a. Necessary personnel report to station with essential gear, within time prescribed, after hearing the words, "Now, man the high-line station."

b. Chief boatswain mate adjusts snatch block personally.

c. First Lieutenant attaches high-line chair to rig to save time.

d. Captain leaves bridge to supervise rigging.
Question 5.

Which one of the following best describes the division officer's effort to establish standards?

a. He informs his men that they will be evaluated during the ext AA practice.

b. He compares the past performances of the four first class POs.

c. He subjectively decides what is to be acceptable performance without regard to organization objectives.

d. He informs his men that during the forthcoming ammunition strikedown he expects them to complete it within four hours.
MEANS TO MEASURE PERFORMANCE

1. INTERNAL AUDITS
2. STATISTICAL DATA
3. CYBERNETIC CONTROL
4. PERT CHARTS
5. CONTROL CHARTS
6. PERSONAL CONTACT AND OBSERVATION BY SUPERIOR
Question 6.

Which one of the following is the established standard expressed in basic units of measurement?

a. The ship is expected to perform a man-overboard drill in a precise, highly efficient manner.

b. The ship is expected to recover the man lost overboard.

c. The ship is expected to use all available resources (i.e., signals, boats, rudder, engines, personnel) in the actual accomplishment of a man-overboard drill.

d. The ship is expected to recover the man safely within 2 minutes after his being lost overboard.
Question 7.

Which one of the following best describes the step of objectively measuring performance?

a. The Captain watches the recovery operation from the bridge.
b. The Captain times the recovery operation.
c. The Captain checks the performance of his boat crew with the aid of his binoculars.
d. The Captain sends the Executive Officer to the lifeboat to observe performance closely.
HELPFUL HINTS IN COMPARING ACTUAL PERFORMANCE WITH STANDARDS

1. Comparison should be as close as possible to performance in time and distance.
2. Comparison should be at critical control points.
3. Comparison should emphasize the large deviations.
4. The implications of deviations between performance and standard should be investigated.
Question 8.

Which one of the following best describes the comparison of a performance with the established standard?

a. A division officer discusses and analyzes the completed task with his CPO.

b. A division officer analyzes the performance and determines what was performed.

c. A division officer compares what was expected of his unit with what was actually achieved.

d. A division officer has his men perform the task twice and then compares these performances.
ASPECTS OF CORRECTIVE ACTION

1. Minor or major adjustments in operations to achieve desired results
2. Correction of cause as well as deviations
3. Administrative corrective action vs mission accomplishment
ELEMENTS OF ADMINISTRATIVE CORRECTIVE ACTION

1. Information to determine causative factors
2. Disciplinary action, if warranted
3. Planning action to prevent recurrence
4. Initiation of other measures approved by the commander
Question 9.

A DDG is not performing typical shipboard exercises satisfactorily. The Division Commander comes aboard to observe.

What describes his most probable action?

a. Takes over the ship and runs the exercises himself to see if it's just a problem in leadership

b. Asks the Captain what's wrong and then makes corrections.

c. Points out 'the accepted standards, measures actual performance with standards, then takes corrective action.

d. Orders the Captain relieved by the Executive Officer to see what effect a change in command has.
Question 10.

Which represents one of the four BASIC steps in the controlling process?

a. Revising standard measurement criteria
b. Observing activity
c. Comparing successive performance
d. Establishing standards
CONTROLLING

Item 13.

DEFICIENCY SOURCES

1. LACK OF KNOWLEDGE
2. LACK OF PERFORMANCE
Question 11.

Which one of the following most clearly shows a deficiency in knowledge?

a. The radioman stopped copying the radio code.
b. The sonar technician fell asleep on watch.
c. The storekeeper did not mail out the requisition.
d. The fire-control technician could not repair the radar.
This is the end of Tape One
of
Part Five, Segment IX
ITEM 14.

INADEQUATE FEEDBACK

TA TASK INTERFERENCES (DAYDREAMING, PERSONAL AFFAIRS, ETC.)

UNPLEASANT TASKS

LACK OF MOTIVATION

PROVIDE INFORMATION ON TASK PERFORMANCE

DEVELOP TIME-MANAGEMENT SYSTEM

INSTITUTE REWARD SYSTEM OR
EQUALLY UNDESIRABLE ALTERNATIVES

CREATE SUCCESSFUL EXPERIENCE OR
RAISE INCENTIVES
Question 12.

An ensign assigned as Assistant Navigator is unable to work out a local apparent noon sun line, even though he stood near the top of his class in navigation at the Naval Academy and has excellent vision and good skills with a sextant.

Which one of the following most accurately identifies the type of deficiency in the example and offers the most feasible solution?

a. The ensign does not have the knowledge; and probably this type of navigational problem is too complex. The Navigator should wait until the ensign has had more experience before giving him this assignment.

b. The ensign is probably not performing because of task interferences and a chat with the Executive Officer on how to structure his time will probably solve the problem.

c. The ensign knows there is a qualified quartermaster available and considers the task demeaning. The Navigator should have him practice with a bubble octant instead.

d. The ensign is probably not performing because of too many other assigned tasks. He should be assigned the next three mid-watches so that he will realize what an easy job the "sun-line" is.
**Item 15.**

**EFFECTS OF UNSATISFACTORY CONTROLLING**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OVERCONTROLLING</th>
<th>UNDERCONTROLLING</th>
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<tr>
<td>1. Confuses leader (he's swamped by too much data.)</td>
<td>1. Deviations go unnoticed.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Inefficiency in time/costs</td>
<td>2. Personal goals may conflict with organizational goals.</td>
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<td>3. Subordinates react negatively.</td>
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Question 13.

Which one of the following best identifies a probable implication of overcontrolling?

a. The leader will develop his own skills better.
b. The subordinates will have more time to develop their skills.
c. The leader will identify more closely with the personal needs of subordinates.
d. The leader may become swamped in a mass of data, much of it unnecessary minutia.
Question 14.

A submarine Captain runs a "loose" ship.

Which one of the following situations is most likely to develop?

a. Submarines are informal anyway—no Captain would dare run a "taut" ship—nothing will happen.

b. Submarine sailors like a Captain who delegates the maximum amount to the Chief of the Boat—morale will be high.

c. The Commanding Officer will probably become inundated with too much information, and goal definition will become hazy.

d. The crew apply more effort on personal goals than on organizational goals.
1. Objective or factual
2. Timely
3. Clear (easily understood)
4. Explanatory and informative
5. Concise, complete, and correct
Question 15. Which one of the following best identifies the importance of reports to controlling?

a. The report is a substitute for controlling.

b. To ensure proper corrective action, a superior must receive periodic reports on progress towards goals.

c. Weak superiors need reports from subordinates, for they can't control without reports.

d. Outstanding leaders do not need reports from subordinates, as they can control without the reports.
INTRODUCTION TO PSYCHOLOGY AND LEADERSHIP

PART FIVE
MILITARY MANAGEMENT

Segment IX
Controlling

Progress Check

WESTINGHOUSE LEARNING CORPORATION
Annapolis, Maryland
1971
INTRODUCTION TO PSYCHOLOGY
AND LEADERSHIP

PART FIVE
SEGMENT IX

CONTROLLING

PROGRESS CHECK

Question 1.
Select the statements which describe the importance of controlling to military management.

1) Controlling enables subordinates to identify trends, thus affording guides for further action.

2) Controlling allows the manager to help fulfill his role by measuring progress toward achieving organizational goals and objectives.

3) Controlling is a continuous process which allows the manager to maintain his knowledge of the overall activity.

4) Controlling is the function of evaluating performance of subordinates in order that appropriate disciplinary measures may be identified as a guide for future action.

a. 1 and 3
b. 2 and 4
c. 2 and 3
d. 3 and 4
Question 2.

From the following statements select those which are characteristics of a control system.

1) Controls should report deviations promptly
2) Controls should eliminate the problems associated with unexpected deviations.
3) Controls should indicate corrective action.
4) Controls should point up areas of strategic interest which have been neglected.
5) Controls should be objective and flexible.
6) Controls must reflect leadership potential regarding the needs of the activity.

a. 1, 3, and 5
b. 1, 2, and 6
c. 2, 4, and 6
d. 2, 3, and 5
Question 3.

LTJG Woodward was the Supply Officer aboard the USS Kensington. Whenever the ship loaded supplies, they were consistently distributed inaccurately or late. The Captain often asked LTJG Woodward where all the supplies had gone, but frequently Woodward could not produce a satisfactory answer.

Select the paragraph which best explains the corrective steps LTJG Woodward should employ in controlling his department.

a. LTJG Woodward should establish goals against which actual results can be measured. He should measure his group's performance against the performances of all other departments on ships of comparable size. LTJG Woodward should insure that minor adjustments are made to change the goal orientation of the organization.

b. LTJG Woodward should establish standards which will determine the abilities of the individuals under his supervision. He should establish measurement standards of performance which will insure that work is accomplished in an efficient manner. LTJG Woodward should institute an external auditing system which will prove the effectiveness of his department.

c. LTJG Woodward should establish standards against which actual results can be measured. He should institute internal budget, audit and statistical programs which will facilitate maintaining better supply procedures. He should compare the actual performance with established standards and take further corrective action if performance deviates from standards.

d. LTJG Woodward should establish standards which will identify specific deficiencies among his men. He should take disciplinary action against those men holding back the group's performance. LTJG Woodward should institute measures directed at lifting morale and stabilizing goal orientation.
Question 4.

MIDN 1/c Knilak informed his plebe platoon at the beginning of the plebe summer indoctrination that they were going to be the best shooting, best marching, most physically fit platoon at the end of plebe summer. He informed the platoon that in order for them to accomplish this goal, they would have to:

1) Qualify over 95% with the rifle and pistol
2) Conduct drill competition without making any mistakes
3) Have 100% with passing scores on all physical fitness tests
4) Be prepared to put in extra hours of effort
5) Hold extra snapping-in instruction for weak shooters
6) Have early morning cross country for the physically weak

Select the standards which will aid in mission accomplishment.

a. 1, 5, and 6
b. 1, 2, and 3
c. 2, 3, and 6
d. 1, 2, and 4
Question 5.

LT Jason's division of the Air Department was involved in aircraft maintenance. The crew was required to generally inspect fifteen aircraft daily. Tire changes were to take no more than one hour if the plane was not to fly again that day. Otherwise the time required was half an hour. On a given day in which all aircraft were to fly again, the repair crews inspected twenty aircraft and took forty-five minutes to change an aircraft tire.

Select the statement which correctly describes the comparison of the performance with the standards.

a. LT Jason's section performed within an acceptable deviation factor of the standards.

b. LT Jason's section performed in accordance with the standards.

c. LT Jason's section did not perform in accordance with established standards.

d. LT Jason's section performed in accordance with standards in one case, but not the other.
Question 6.

LT Nelson was directed by his CO to conduct a staff study to determine the enemy's capability of infiltrating personnel into South Vietnam by sea routes. As LT Nelson began to organize his research in the study, it became more and more obvious that the staff study needed some specific limiting parameters in order to meet the imposed deadline of the CO.

Select the statement which indicated the most appropriate and logical action for LT Nelson to take.

a. LT Nelson should carry on with the study, limiting the staff study by his own assumptions and simply do the best job possible in the time available.

b. LT Nelson should request his Commanding Officer to relieve him of the responsibility for the staff study since the scope of the study goes beyond his own expertise.

c. LT Nelson should recommend to his Commanding Officer, before commencing to write the study, that the staff study be narrowed (limited) to cover only a specific area of South Vietnam.

d. LT Nelson should simply continue the study and just before the deadline inform his Commanding Officer of the extent of his study and request additional time to complete the task.
Question 7.

ENS Foxball was assigned to the USS Scott as the B Division Officer. This was his first assignment aboard a ship. On the fifteenth day at sea two forced draft blowers broke down. ENS Foxball began to supervise the repair operation. After attempting three different approaches to the problem, he requested the assistance of LT Dunlap, the Chief Engineer.

Select the paragraph which correctly states the deficiency ENS Foxball possesses and specifies the appropriate solution to correct the deficiency.

a. ENS Foxball cannot perform the task because of inadequate feedback. The boilermen under his supervision are not qualified to offer constructive suggestions. The solution is to provide further training for the boilermen.

b. ENS Foxball cannot perform the task because of a lack of knowledge on his part. ENS Foxball should seek to improve his professional knowledge by discussing his duties and likely problem areas with more experienced officers aboard ship.

c. ENS Foxball cannot perform the task because he lacks sufficient motivation based on his experience. He does not realize the importance of the problem and should be made immediately aware of its consequences.

d. ENS Foxball cannot perform the task because his other responsibilities as B Division Officer inhibit him. He should delegate appropriate authority to his CPO so that his full attention may be directed toward the repair operation.
Question 8.

From the following examples select the one which demonstrates overcontrolling.

a. ENS Hamilton, the E Division Officer, was informed by the Chief Engineer that all circuits aboard the ship would be checked daily. In addition, he was to prepare a parts sheet each day which listed those parts which were utilized in repair situations.

b. LT Aubrey was instructed to drill his men whenever he thought it was necessary. LT Aubrey drilled them once weekly.

c. LTJG Arnold was officer-in-charge of a study group analyzing the effectiveness of PBR boats in eliminating Viet Cong infiltration. He was presented with 400 pages of unassimilated data, but later discovered he needed more information.

d. LT Larsen instituted a zero-defects program in his unit. The personnel were now required to employ doublecheck techniques.
Question 9.

ENS Collins was the Supply Officer aboard the USS Carson. He allowed his personnel to issue equipment to the crew without written receipts. Issuing procedures became largely disorganized and frequent arguments erupted among the men regarding respective responsibilities.

Select the statement which is an implication of under-controlling as illustrated in the foregoing situation.

a. Undercontrolling probably leads to more rapid accomplishment of the mission.
b. Undercontrolling can lead to complementary controls which counteract indirect effects.
c. Undercontrolling is necessary when mission objectives are flexible.
d. Undercontrolling may result in a permissive atmosphere leading to conflicting goals and a breakdown in morale and discipline.

Question 10.

Select the statement which describes the importance of reports to controlling.

a. Reports are important to indicate the leadership potential of subordinate personnel.
b. Reports are important to establish goal preferences among the personnel engaged in the mission.
c. Reports are important to summarize and communicate conclusions of measurement, and to reveal the status of a situation.
d. Reports are important because they inform a leader's superiors of the necessity for cost analysis.
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<tr>
<th>ITEM</th>
<th>ANSWER</th>
<th>REMEDIATION REFERENCE</th>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
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<td>Pages 3-5</td>
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<td>Pages 2-6</td>
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<td>Pages 2-6</td>
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<td>Pages 6-9</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>Pages 12-14</td>
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<td>8</td>
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<td>Pages 16-18</td>
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United States Naval Academy

INTRODUCTION TO PSYCHOLOGY AND LEADERSHIP

PART FIVE
MILITARY MANAGEMENT

Segment IX
Controlling

Audio Script
(LATS)

WESTINGHOUSE LEARNING CORPORATION
Annapolis, Maryland
1971
In one of the previous segments we discussed the management function of "directing" and learned that it constitutes the first phase of the process of converting a plan into action. We stressed the importance of leadership, since it is through effective leadership which involves motivating people towards the accomplishment of a goal that successful directing is implemented. In this lesson we shall be concerned with the management function of "controlling." (Pause)

Now look at Item 1.

As you can see, there are six elements in the controlling function. (Pause)

Now look at Item 2 as I give you a definition of controlling.

Controlling is the function of evaluating the performance of subordinates and applying corrective measures so that performance takes place in accordance with plans. In our discussion, we will cover how to evaluate subordinates' performance and how to apply corrective action in a timely and orderly manner. The best made plans, directions
and efforts to support them, will be useless unless steps are taken to ensure that their execution is successful. This, of course, requires the supervisor to set standards of performance and make periodic evaluations. Every supervisor must always keep in mind the relative "sensitivity" of standard setting. Setting standards too high results in complete frustration and eventually complete loss of interest of subordinates. On the other hand, setting standards too low results in inefficient operations, bored subordinates, and inferior performance because performance is seldom consistently above standards.

Now look at Item 5.

As shown, motivation is highest when the probability of success is highest. (Pause)

Now look at Item 4.

In the final analysis, it is the controlling function which keeps the execution of the plan on the tracks enroute to the objective. While controlling, as we have defined it, is primarily concerned with insuring that performance takes place in accordance with plans, it is also important, if done well, in concurrently furnishing some valuable aids to the supervisor. (Pause)

Now look at Item 5.

I am sure that you all realize that there could be no benefit to management (in fact, controlling itself would be a farce).
without feedback. The various techniques of control (reports, charts, etc.), by their very nature, require feedback to the supervisor. (Pause)

We now have defined "controlling," properly located it in the management wheel, and emphasized its importance to you as future military leaders. But, how do you achieve good control? What are the characteristics of a good control system? Let us examine the characteristics suggested by Koontz and O'Donnell in their book, Principles of Management. (Pause)

Now look at Item 6.

From this list, we see that: (1) The controls or control system used should reflect the needs of the activity—that is, they should be suitable for the organization. A system you would use in connection with commanding the brig would not be the same as one you would use as a division officer on a destroyer. (2) The system should be designed so as to report deviations promptly—in time for you to do something to correct them, not just for historical purposes. To quote Ernest Dale in his book, Management: Theory and Practice, "Any gap between expectations and performance...is most easily closed if it is detected before it becomes serious." (3) It should point up exceptions at the strategic control points—not every little unimportant waiver from the straight line. (4) It must be objective. Too many subjective judgments will ruin not only the control system, but probably the
entire operation as well. (5) Your system must be flexible—be able to give and bend when confronted with unexpected lesser-order problems. For example, hull reports are normally submitted by division officers weekly. They contain information such as watertight integrity, preservation, repairs needed, etc., for every space under the division officer's cognizance. However, if extended operations preclude an inspection and report, the submission of the report can be delayed with little adverse effect. (6) They must be economical—don't over-design and produce a pneumatic sledge hammer to drive a thumb tack. During a shipyard overhaul, progress reports are required on all work being done. In one case the reports were so extensive and required so much preparation that more time was consumed in this effort than in monitoring the jobs themselves. This is an example of uneconomical controls. (7) Controls, of course, must be understandable to all who will use them. This requirement is too often ignored, especially in the upper levels of big organizations where economists and accountants often devise complex control systems which must eventually be operated by less well-educated first-line supervisors. (8) They should indicate the appropriate corrective action to take and when it should be taken. It is obviously not sufficient that your system point out a deviation; it must also suggest what to do and when to do it. An example is the weekly progress reports during a shipyard overhaul. Delays and problem areas are brought to light by the reports, then the reasons for the
deficiencies are determined and remedial action is taken. Although it is difficult, to summarize the characteristics of a good control system, we can say: A good control system is a tool for management to make sure that directives have been received, understood, and followed and that, in general, things are going right. (Pause)

As we discuss controlling and control systems, we must realize we are not dealing with a fixed, categorized, one-step edict. Controlling is a dynamic process; and, as with any process, we should be able to break it down into basic steps. Before discussing the basic steps in the controlling system, however, let us visualize for a moment the normal situation existing during your summer cruise. As you know, each ship is required to complete certain exercises in preparation for battle readiness. During the cruises you sometimes have the opportunity to engage in some of these exercises. It may be a man-overboard drill, an engineering economy trial run, an intership communication exercise, a seamanship evolution such as refueling at sea, or any of a large number of exercises which cover the range of a ship's activities. A description of each exercise is included in the appropriate tactical publication. These descriptions incorporate standards of acceptable performance. Thus, in the man-overboard drill, there is a standard time in which "OSCAR," the simulated man, is to be recovered. In the economy trial, there are tables of acceptable fuel consumption based on the conditions of the exercise. In the communication
exercises, there are constraints imposed by the quality and quantity of actual communication achieved within a given time frame. And, finally, there are standard times for approach, rigging, delivery, and breakaway in the case of refueling at sea. Now all of these exercises are controlled in accordance with the same basic steps which are common to each of them. (Pause)

Now look at Item 7.

These four basic steps (establishing standards, measuring performance, comparing the measured performance with the established standards, and taking the indicated corrective action) are common and necessary for all good control systems. The man-overboard drill for a particular ship type may call for a standard of two minutes to recover the man. The chief observer for the exercise actually times the ship—how long did it take for the lifeboat crew to report manned and ready? These performances are compared with the standards, and finally the chief observer submits an official exercise report which points out deficiencies and recommends corrective action. Thus, we see that the four basic steps (establishing standards, measuring performance, comparing performance with standards and, finally, providing for corrective action) are exemplified in the man-overboard drill and the other ships' competitive exercises. There are some further important considerations attendant on each of these four basic steps. Let us discuss these for each of the steps in sequence. First, establishing standards: (Pause)
Now look at Item 8.

(1) Standards are the established criteria against which results can be measured. (In the man-overboard analogy how did the time required to complete the exercise compare to the two-minute standard?) (2) Standards are established in accordance with important outcome characteristics and level of achievement required. (3) Standards are established to determine ability of individuals and units to perform. (The man-overboard drill tests the ship's ability to recover a man.) (4) Standards must be consistent with ultimate objectives. (The use of elapsed time until recovery as a standard is consistent with the ultimate objective of the drill--the safe recovery of a man who has fallen overboard.) (5) Responsible unit commanders should specify standards. (The Type Commander should set the standards--not the Executive Officer or the First Lieutenant of the ship conducting the exercise.) The performance standards in our shipboard example were physical in nature. Certain skills and manual dexterities plus group effort are needed to perform the man-overboard drill successfully. There are other types of standards. Among these are cost standards, deviation from budget of not more than 5%; reenlistment rate of X%; and program standards. Analogies similar to the man-overboard drill could also be developed for these. (Pause)

Our first step in controlling was the establishment of standards. Our second step, measurement of performance, needs discussion with respect to the different methods of measurement. (Pause)
Now look at Item 9.

In a business sense, internal audits and various statistical data supply the supervisor with actual performance measures. Additionally, the use of cybernetic control systems has not only permitted an automatic, rapid means of measurement but has also supplied a means for automatic correction. For example, when information regarding a supply shipment is automatically fed back into the stock control system and the system is modified to reorder new stock at a certain minimum level, it is done without further human control. The use of the computer in solving the fire control problem for an anti-aircraft target illustrates rapid measurement of error and rapid, automatic correction. The PERT Charts (Programmed Evaluation Review Techniques), a sophisticated, probabilistic form of control chart, were an innovation first used by the special projects office of the Navy in controlling the progress of development of the Polaris submarine. However, other less complex types of control charts are used widely in all kinds of organizations and situations. You can probably think of such examples as boiler feed-water treatment or magnetic compass corrections, and there are countless others. While it is true that cybernetic systems with automated and sophisticated control procedures can add to the supervisor's ability to measure performance, don't think for a minute that they eliminate him from the role of personally observing performance of his subordinates. Fitness reports in the Navy are not made out by computers!

In most practical shipboard applications, the direct contact...
and observation by a superior is still the best way of measuring individual performance. The CO of a ship must observe the OOD in action in order to determine his proficiency. This can be done no other way. Guidance and direction must be provided immediately. (Pause)

Having discussed pertinent aspects of the first two basic steps in controlling--establishing standards and measuring performance--we come to the third step, comparing actual performance with standards. Let us look at some helpful hints in this area of comparing performance with standards. (Pause)

Now look at Item 10.

First, the comparison should occur as close to performance as possible in terms of both time and distance. An Operations and Readiness Division of the Office of the Chief of Naval Operations should not be evaluating man-overboard drill performances, and the chief observer of an exercise should not wait a month before announcing his evaluation. Second, comparison should occur at critical control points for the best view. For instance, during gun drills, it would be impractical to compare every step in the drill, beginning with removal of the ammo from the magazine to finally firing the weapon. Rather, we would examine the length of time required to get the ammo to the gun position; and, then, the remaining time necessary to load and fire. Third, control is expedited by concentrating on the exceptions, or large variations, from the standard. In conducting a CIC-assisted
anchoring exercise, the critical points to check would be: distance from center of anchorage, deviation from intended course, and the number and validity of recommended course corrections. Fourth, the possible implications of deviations between performance and standard should be appreciated and investigated. It is always possible such investigation will reveal that the subordinate has failed to meet the standard in question, but instead has met other standards which he considered more important; and the one standard he failed to meet was incompatible with the others. This may happen, at times, when two different staff sections set independent and incompatible standards for the operating units. It can also happen when a subordinate is given two standards, such as one for quality and one for cost, and is not told how to weight the priorities of the two standards. It is important for the leader to be aware of these implications and to take corrective action as indicated. Assume that you are editor of the TRIDENT. You can imagine the difference in the end product that would result if you received the following different directions from your officer representative:

Case I: Turn out the best possible calendar that you and your staff are capable of. Case II: Turn out the least expensive calendar you can devise. Case III: Turn out the best possible calendar, but be sure it can turn a profit.
at a selling price of $1.00 each. Obviously, the standards set for you vary from case to case, and your performance must vary in a similar manner. (Pause)

The last of our basic steps in controlling, taking corrective action, also needs some elaboration. (Pause)

Now look at Item 11.

First, it is to be expected that operations will have to be adjusted from time to time in order to achieve results which are consistent with expectations. None of us can always be right 100\% the first time in our planning, organizing, and directing; and it is here in the controlling phase that feedback through our various measurement methods will inform us that we have to adjust our plan, organization, or directive to obtain the results we expect. While some such adjustments are minor, there will be some which involve extensive changes in plans, organization structure, directive, or goal orientation. Second, care should be taken to correct the cause of a deviation as well as the deviation itself. With respect to the final point, mission accomplishment implies immediacy whereas administrative corrective action usually involves more intensive investigation of causes—especially in the case of recurring difficulties. The methods of both types of corrective action may be similar but their objectives differ, primarily with respect to the time requirement. (Pause)
Now look at Item 12.

Some elements of administrative corrective action include:
First, complete investigation to determine the nature of the factors responsible, particularly in cases of recurring difficulties. Second, disciplinary action if and when investigation so warrants. Third, planning action to prevent recurrence of the situation. Fourth, initiation of such other measures as are approved by the Commander. Changes may have to be made in organization or written directives, or it may be necessary to initiate other measures. I think it is obvious why we can say administrative type corrective action involves delay over mission accomplishment corrective action. A true leader and effective supervisor must remember that corrective action must be directed toward discovering and rectifying the cause of failure in order to prevent recurrence—not toward attempts to find a scapegoat. (Pause)

Now we will discuss a frustrating experience that you as a military leader are bound to encounter. Let's say that you followed the four basic steps of controlling: You established standards, measured performance, compared results against standards, and instituted corrective action to overcome deviations from expected standards. To your horror you find that your subordinates still do not respond at the desired level. Assuming that these deficiencies of performance rest primarily with the subordinate and not with you, the leader, the nature of the deficiencies (i.e., underachievement) must be attributed to one of two possible sources. (Pause)
Now look at Item 13.

These sources are: (1) Lack of knowledge. (2) Lack of performance. Let's reflect on these a minute. Suppose that once as a midshipman at the Academy you did not meet the expected standards in a course and wound up failing. This shortcoming was no doubt caused either by insufficient study on your part with a consequent lack of knowledge at the time of the test, or if you had the knowledge, you were unable to produce on that particular day due to a variety of conflicting factors which we shall call "performance factors." Thorndike, the famous educational psychologist, would have grouped all of the latter--the performance factors--under his readiness concept. He would have argued that the human mind can react to only one stimulus at a time. If a circus parade is marching down the street past the windows of a third-grade classroom, it would be futile for the teacher to attempt to make her history lesson a stronger stimulus than the parade. Similarly, it is possible that, for some of you, the coming weekend is uppermost in your minds, and any other stimulus pattern (including this lesson) may interfere with your primary stimulus influence, so you unconsciously reject the secondary stimulus. In a minute we will discuss possible solutions to problems such as these. If, on the other hand, the root of the underachievement problem is lack
of knowledge, the solution is more clear. Acquire more knowledge through study, education, training. (Pause)

This is the end of Tape One of Part Five, Segment IX.
TAPE TWO OF PART FIVE SEGMENT IX

Now let's return to a discussion of the deficiencies due to performance factors; the solution to these shortcomings is complex and involves the psychology of human behavior.

(Pause)

Now look at Item 14.

Obviously, if a subordinate's lack of performance is caused by inadequate feedback, your solution is to provide this feedback in the form of more and better information as to how he has been performing. To put it simply, he's not going to improve unless he is somehow made to realize his performance has been below par and to what extent it is deficient. Second, if his poor performance is due to interruptions and cross-interference, his tasks should be restructured systematically so as to obviate, to the extent possible, all types of interference which can be foreseen. Third, if the poor performance is believed to be due to the unpleasant or oppressive nature of the assignment and you can't change its nature and still meet objectives, then you must do one of two things: either design a bonus system to give the subordinate extra rewards, or if that isn't possible, think up even more distasteful alternatives than the assigned job so that what he is doing appears more palatable by comparison. Last, if it just appears that he simply isn't motivated, you can either gradually improve his performance by letting him experience
a series of successes in introductory tasks or you can try increasing motivation by raising the incentives. It is quite possible that your subordinate's lack of performance is due not only to a combination of knowledge and performance type deficiencies, but to an interaction between the two as well. Lack of knowledge and lack of performance may interact as follows. Lack of knowledge may create an insecure feeling which leads to lack of motivation for learning and consequently enables another stimulus event (i.e., the weekend date, perhaps) to take the stronger position. Similarly, but conversely, lack of motivation affects acquisition of knowledge and may cause task interferences. Likewise, continued assignment of unpleasant tasks to the same subordinate will certainly affect his motivation. There are many other similar interactions between knowledge and performance deficiencies. (Pause)

You should recognize that a good control system is built on enthusiasm, pride, and standards. Furthermore, since too much control kills initiative, it is good practice to minimize centralized control to the extent necessary for accomplishing a particular mission. While we recognize the importance of controlling to the supervisor in attempting to attain the required objectives, we must also realize that here too, as with directing, there is a "just-right" amount of control which should be applied in each case. Overcontrolling and
undercontrolling both jeopardize not only the immediate task at hand but also future organization goals. To definitively answer the question, "How closely should I, as a leader, supervise or control subordinates to whom I have delegated a task?" is impossible. There is no set answer and the degree of control necessary will not only vary from instance to instance but will be affected to a great extent by your personality, the subordinate's personality and capability, and the personal interaction between you. Nevertheless, you can get a much better feel for the dilemma you will often confront as a leader by looking at and comparing some of the effects of overcontrolling and undercontrolling. (Pause)

Now look at Item 15.

First, under "effects of overcontrolling" we see that the leader who tries to personally supervise all details of every aspect of his job requires increasing amounts of information and is bound to be swamped in data, often minutia and trivia. Then, in his confusion, he is prone to misinterpret data. Further, in overcontrol situations the subordinates may react negatively and be inclined to resist the leader till, finally, he finds he has created more problems than solutions. The junior division officer, as the division training officer, was required to keep accurate and timely records of all training accomplished. In some cases this had degenerated to the point that the officer so assigned required
daily reports of training accomplished, and a written plan for the next day. More time was spent in planning and reporting than was devoted to training. On the other hand, the leader who undercontrols may not recognize deviations from established standards. Also, when undercontrolled, subordinates may tend to supplant the organizational goals with their own personal goals. Consider the example of a lieutenant, the Commanding Officer of an LST, who runs a loose ship, deluding himself that this gives him time to get the "big picture." There is a general feeling among the crew that the CO does not care what happens. There is constant bickering among the officers, and the senior petty officers do not supervise their men properly. Things never seem to get done properly or on time. (Pause)

Before continuing, let's briefly review the problem of over- and undercontrolling. In the final analysis, only experience will teach you to what extent you should retain control. However, your experience will likely be more productive if it is based upon a knowledge of the effects of over and undercontrolling on you, your men, and the task at hand. These effects range from swamping yourself with too much data (in the case of overcontrolling) to simply not meeting the required objectives (in the case of undercontrolling). Your ability to successfully apply the "just-right" amount of control will be enhanced by keeping these effects in mind. (Pause)
We cannot leave the subject of controlling without considering the matter of reporting and the characteristics of good reports. To most of us, the word reports connotes stacks of paperwork on the desk of an overburdened supervisor, preventing him from being out with his men, out where the action is, really managing his job. But, as usual, there is another side to the coin. As onerous as reports may seem, they are probably the most popular and effective way in which the delegating superior learns how well his subordinate is doing with the authority which has been delegated to him. Written reports, unfortunately, are too often the only real, concrete ties between superiors and the many subordinates who are supposed to be following their directives. Needless to say, when a superior finds that a report is definitely required, there are several aspects which he should consider. First, he always has to balance the requirement for timeliness against the requirement for accuracy. There is, obviously, some truth to the old saying that "if you want it bad, you'll get it bad." In general, the faster you want the report, the less complete it will be. Unfortunately, this has been over-emphasized in most bureaucracies to the extent that complete reports somehow always seem to take forever to prepare and "fast" reports are always expected to be inaccurate and incomplete. Don't let this generalization fool you. Good, reliable, complete reports can be prepared in a short time. Second, a good supervisor continually reviews his need for
This sounds like an easy maxim to follow, but, putting it simply, you won't do it unless you schedule yourself to make the review and make yourself stick to the schedule. Third, any report that you make to your superior should always consider not only the use to which you believe the report is going to be put, but also the known preferences of the reader of the report--your superior. And last, a report that you submit should always strive to maintain simplicity while getting across the key message about performance against set standards. As a minimum, the report should state whether the situation is getting better or worse and should summarize the primary conclusions with respect to the measurements made. Now let's look at some of the characteristics of a good report as outlined by Anthony in his Management Accounting. (Pause)

Now look at Item 16.

As you can see, a report from you to your superior, or from your subordinate to you should be objective or factual, rather than subjective or emotional. It should be timely--not late and after the fact like yesterday's newspaper. Third, a report should be easily understood--not full of "governmentese" or pseudo-sophisticated $10 words. Fourth, it should be explanatory and informative instead of secretive, officious, and confusing. Finally, the report should be concise, complete, and checked to be sure it is correct. (Pause)
CONTROLLING

Now let's summarize this lesson. First, we defined controlling as the function of evaluating performance of subordinates and applying corrective measures so that performance takes place in accordance with plans. Then, we placed it functionally in the management wheel along with directing, in the execution phase of management—following the preparation functions of planning and organizing. We looked at some of the characteristics of a good control system and subdivided them into four basic steps as follows: establish standards, measure performance, compare actual performance with standards, and take corrective action if performance deviates from the standards. We considered some of the sins of over and undercontrolling. Finally we discussed reporting systems and the primary characteristics of a good report. Remember: as a military leader, after you have planned and organized, set standards, approved procedures, you must then control to insure that the resulting performance does, in fact, take place in accordance with the required standards in order that the desired objectives are met.

This is the end of Tape Two of Part Five, Segment IX.
INTRODUCTION TO PSYCHOLOGY AND LEADERSHIP

PART FIVE
MILITARY MANAGEMENT

Segment X
Coordinating

Audio Panel Book
(HAPB)

WESTINGHOUSE LEARNING CORPORATION
Annapolis, Maryland
1971
"When the general is weak and without authority; when his orders are not clear and distinct; when there are no fixed duties assigned to the officers and men, and the ranks are formed in a slovenly, haphazard manner, the result is utter disorganization."

Sun Tzu

Coordinating is the integrating of all the details necessary for accomplishment of the mission. It is ensuring that all efforts are bent toward a common objective and that there is no duplication of work that results in wasted effort. The relationship of coordinating to the management function and the types of coordination will be studied in this final segment of military management. The student will be able to ascertain if coordination is lacking and what corrective action is required.

An understanding of the military management process is particularly important to the military leader as it is a continuing basis of leadership.
Item 1.
Question 1.

Which one of the following describes the relation between coordinating and the other management functions?

a. In addition to interrelating the four management functions coordinating is a critical activity within each management function.

b. Planning and coordinating are practically synonymous and differ from organizing, directing and controlling.

c. They are all goal-directed.

d. Coordinating follows after planning and organizing and precedes directing and controlling.
Question 2.

Which one of the following best defines the coordinating function?

a. Coordinating is the function which minimizes individual differences among personnel.

b. Coordinating is the integrating of all details necessary to accomplish organizational group objectives.

c. Coordination is intervention to bring about greater cooperation among the personnel concerned.
Question 3.

Which one of the following identifies a particular need for coordination during military operations?

a. Naval gunfire support for a search and cordon operation conducted by a Korean Marine brigade

b. The sounding of general quarters aboard a destroyer because of an enemy air attack

c. Necessity to obtain a high assurance that all hands in the Southeast Asia combat zone have take their weekly malaria pills
Question 4.

Which one of the following illustrates command coordination?

a. The Admiral briefs subordinate commanding officers on a fleet training exercise.

b. The Marine General commanding the Amphibious Landing Force discusses the plans for an amphibious operation with the Admiral commanding the Amphibious Task Force.

c. The Admiral discusses a future operation with his staff.
Question 5.

Which example of liaison coordination illustrates that supporting units habitually establish liaison with supported units?

a. A Marine artillery unit assigned the mission of direct support for an infantry regiment always assigns an experienced artillery officer to operate with the infantry regimental staff.

b. Destroyer "A" and Destroyer "B" exchange key petty officer personnel for a week's cruise to share useful information about each other's problems and procedures.
Question 6. Which one of the following best contrasts the three types of military coordination?

a. Liaison coordination is, in effect, command coordination by proxy, and staff coordination is between staff officers of higher or lower levels.

b. Both liaison and staff coordinating may be horizontal and vertical, while command is only horizontal.

c. Command, liaison and staff are alike in that all are concerned with broader areas, not details.
Question 7.

A Commanding Officer sends his Chief Engineer to the destroyer tender in advance of a scheduled upkeep period in order to make appropriate advance plans.

Which category of military coordination is evidenced by this example?

a. Command coordination
b. Liaison coordination
c. Staff coordination
**Item 2.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CONFERENCE TECHNIQUE</th>
<th>ADVANTAGES</th>
<th>DISADVANTAGES</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>ADVANTAGES</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>1. Achieves high quality of coordination.</td>
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<td>1. Expensive.</td>
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<td>2. Maximizes interpersonal contact.</td>
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<td>2. Biases and errors of fact may be communicated too rapidly to analyze and correct.</td>
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<td>3. Expertise available.</td>
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<td>3. A strong individual or clique may negate efforts of total group.</td>
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<td>4. Corrects individual bias and oversights.</td>
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<td>4. Depends too much on discussion skills of leader.</td>
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<td>5. Preserves security.</td>
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Question 8. Which one of the following examples identifies the conference technique of coordinating?

a. A division officer meets with his leading CPO.
b. The Executive Officer meets with the department heads.
c. The Captain receives a multiple-addressed letter from the Division Commander.
d. The Operations Officer briefs a group of dignitaries on the current enemy situation.
Question 9.
Which one of the following illustrates the individual contact technique of coordinating?

a. A division officer holds a meeting with key petty officers.
b. The Captain conducts a briefing on an impending operation.
c. The Executive Officer explains the planned operating schedule to the Chief Engineer and asks him to submit his training plans for the at-sea period.
d. The OOD in port issues an order to the Engineering Petty Officer of the Watch to report to him at two-hour intervals.
Question 10.

Which one of the following is valid concerning individual contact through supplementary devices?

a. Useful for coordinating major matters
b. Allows for courtesy calls
c. Impossible to keep records
d. Useful in coordinating minor details
Question 11.

A landing exercise (PHIBEX) is being planned. The PHIBRON combat cargo officer (CCO) desires inputs from the CCO's of the respective ships, in regard to loading and unloading of combat cargo.

Since each ship CCO will be the liaison man between the landing forces and the Navy forces, how should he be used?

a. A liaison man should be assigned at the outset and remain throughout the entire operation.

b. A liaison man should be assigned whenever the commanders require informal exchange of information.

c. A liaison man should be appointed to develop the operation plan.
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<td>Written</td>
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<tr>
<td>Correspondence</td>
<td>MAINTAINS INFORMATION FLOW BETWEEN COORDINATING UNITS</td>
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DIVISION OFFICER KNOWLEDGE AND CAPABILITIES

Item 4.

1. Able to influence people to act
2. Knows what people should be doing and what should be achieved
3. Knows what should be contributed to common effort
4. Able to achieve results efficiently
INTRODUCTION TO PSYCHOLOGY AND LEADERSHIP

PART FIVE
MILITARY MANAGEMENT

Segment 7
Coordinating

Progress Check

WESTINGHOUSE LEARNING CORPORATION
Annapolis, Maryland
1971
COORDINATING

PROGRESS CHECK

Question 1.
Select the most accurate description of the relationship between coordinating and the other management functions of planning, organizing, directing, and controlling.

a. Coordinating is synonymous with cooperation and is equally weighted in a hierarchy of importance with other management functions.

b. Coordinating integrates the other management functions to efficiently meet the stated objective.

c. Coordinating ensures equal participation of all management team members.

d. Coordinating guarantees the autonomy of all participants in a mission.
Question 2.

One member of a squadron commander's staff has the job of preparing anti-submarine exercises. Coordination would require which of the following?

a. The staff plans all aspects of the activity and then informs support and unit commanders of their duties.

b. The staff turns all planning over to a committee of support and unit commanders chosen by vote of these commanders.

c. The staff turns planning, organization and direction over to the submarine commanders.

d. The staff involves support units and submarine commanders in planning, organizing and directing the operation from the beginning.

Question 3.

Units from a Naval Air Station are to participate in a series of complex training exercises along with Air Force units operating from different regional areas. Coordinating the common use of bases by elements of all units would involve which type of coordination?

a. Command

b. Staff

c. Liaison

d. All of the above
Question 4.

An important liaison coordination principle states that "supporting units habitually establish liaison with supported units."

Select the best example of this principle.

a. Aircraft carriers that are part of the same fleet maintain liaison with one another.

b. The fleet commander maintains liaison with assigned aircraft carriers.

c. Service force task groups maintain liaison with task forces to which they are assigned.

d. None of the above
Question 5.

During a naval gunfire (NGF) training exercise the destroyer providing the fire support for the exercise was able to provide enough illumination (star shells) for the adjustment of only one night fire mission.

From the following statements which one best describes the failure in coordination and outlines what action should be taken to correct the deficiency?

a. There was a lack of coordination between the destroyer Weapons Officer and the naval gunfire teams ashore as to how much night firing was going to be expected. Liaison and staff coordinating should have clearly established the quantity and type of naval gunfire to be desired.

b. There was a failure on the part of the destroyer Weapons Officer to anticipate the requirements of the NGF teams ashore for night adjustment of fire. The Weapons Officer should modify his ship's instructions to always include an equal amount of illumination and HE for future exercises.

c. The Captain of the Destroyer failed to establish command liaison with the shore party to find out if firing was to be conducted at night. The Captain should ensure coordination with the Shore Party Commander to avoid any future discrepancies in fire support.

d. None of the above
Question 6.

An aircraft carrier Commanding Officer held a meeting of his key officers to develop an idea for a more efficient means of refueling carriers at sea. After concluding the meeting, a recommendation was prepared, signed by the Captain and then sent up the chain of command.

The coordination techniques used by the carrier CO in meeting with his key officers was:

a. Conference
b. Individual contact
c. Command initiative
d. Liaison man

Question 7.

The coordination of an amphibious operation involving air, sea, and land forces in an attack on a hostile beach would most likely involve which of the following coordination techniques?

a. Conference
b. Written correspondence
c. Liaison
d. All of the above
Question 8.
Coordination is important to military management because:

a. Coordination fosters cooperation, and cooperation is the single most significant factor in the success of a military manager.

b. Coordination resolves the individual differences between competing military units.

c. Coordinating, in military management, is the integrating of all details necessary to mission accomplishment.

d. Coordinating, in military management, allows the leaders to plan contingencies with a high degree of accuracy.
Question 9.

A consequence of poor coordination is:

a. Heightened awareness of the problem  
b. Lack of unity of action  
c. Increased individual initiative  
d. Dual accomplishment of the same operation
### Progress Check Answer and Remediation Form

**Part Five, Segment X**

**Remediation Text**: Audio Script - Volume V-B

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INTRODUCTION TO PSYCHOLOGY AND LEADERSHIP

PART FIVE
MILITARY MANAGEMENT

Segment X
Coordinating

Audio Script
(LATS)

WESTINGHOUSE LEARNING CORPORATION
Annapolis, Maryland
1971
People often display a remarkable persistence in their pursuit of goals. Now, consider MIDN of your class as being typical of persons within a group or organization. Each MIDN makes a somewhat different interpretation of the shared interests and goals—individual member differences significantly affect group performance. Individual differences occur in all groups—in some, more than in others. Since all groups inherently seek specific objectives, individual differences must be managed—controlled. The manager-leader—therefore, seeks to harmonize individual goals with group goals. He reconciles differences among the members affecting timing, effort, and interest. This is the function of coordinating. Coordinating interrelates the other four management functions of planning, organizing, directing and controlling. This is why it is depicted surrounding the other functions on the rim of the management wheel. Coordinating is, in fact, a critical activity within each management function. It has been called the "essence" of the management process. (Pause)

Now look at Item 1.

The diagrams suggest that the exercise of any one function by itself is unlikely to achieve organizational objectives. There are conceivable conditions in which organizational
objectives might be achieved by performing the first four management functions without someone deliberately coordinating the details. Certain manufacturing processes can perhaps be programmed so that workers, machines, and materials can all be planned, organized, given directions, and automatically controlled. Once the program of such operations is initiated, it may not need any further intervention by the manager. A military drill team may also function this way; certain exercises may be carried to completion with only an initial command. But in most areas of management neither human beings nor material resources can be synchronized this reliably. It is almost always necessary to intervene during operations to readjust certain activities. (Pause)

The need for continuous coordination is likely to be even greater in military management than in some other areas. In military management, coordinating is the integrating of all details necessary to the accomplishment of the mission. The activities of an enemy during a military engagement may present the commander with problems which could not be completely planned for in advance. Thus, during military operations, a commander must frequently readjust his plans, organization, directions or controls. For example, a ship may be engaged in prelanding firing on a beachhead. It may suddenly receive counter-battery fire--have to abandon
assigned targets--defend itself. The Officer in Tactical Command (OTC) may have to assign targets to other vessels so that units about to go ashore will have continuous cover. Then, if the counter-battery fire is suppressed, the OTC can order a return to the original firing plan. Coordinations of this kind afford timely provision of needed resources to a military operation. They result from planned actions for various contingencies--planning provides for continuity--for teamwork on the same task. Coordination thus achieves a balance and counterbalance in the pattern of organization efforts--of efforts by all elements in the organization. Coordination should not be confused with cooperation. The latter is simply a willingness among individuals to be helpful to one another. Cooperative action by itself does not necessarily produce effective group performance. Imagine what might happen if a half dozen or so willing deck hands were to attempt to bring about a yawl in a strong wind without someone aboard to decide which sails to trim and when to do it. A cooperative crew is not enough. Coordinating is as necessary to sailing as to any other human enterprise. It ensures that all efforts are bent toward a common objective and that there is minimal duplication of work and wasted effort. Coordinating refers not only to physical activities but to the resolution of differences of opinion.
Coordinating may be looked on as both a technique to accomplish planning and an objective to be achieved by planning.

Within the military framework, coordination can be further broken down into the categories of command, liaison and staff. Command coordinating refers, as its name implies, to the actual coordinating at the command level. Commanders having areas of common interest meet to ensure that their operations mesh and that no gaps or overlaps in responsibility and authority will occur during their operation. In the Brigade of Midshipmen, for example, the Company Commanders may meet to insure that there is common understanding of the rules and procedures of the Color Company Competition.

Liaison coordination is a second major category of military coordination. The contact between respective units is at some level below the command level and involves exchange of information between units. It is customary for supporting units to maintain liaison with the supported unit. For example, a naval gunfire liaison officer is assigned to a Marine unit to make an amphibious landing. As liaison officer ashore he will be able to inform the commander of the Marine unit when naval gunfire support would be most appropriate. He will also feedback firing information to the OTC responsible for ship-to-shore bombardment. The third and final category of military coordinating is at the staff level. Staff personnel here at all times represent their Commander. Top policy matters are normally reserved
for the Commander's attention. Routine coordinating, however, both in the vertical and horizontal directions, is usually left with the staff.

Coordination requires some form of communication, which may be either oral or written or both. The communication may develop within a conference or it may take place by one individual contacting another. It may use written correspondence, or it may be through a liaison man. We shall consider the relative advantages and disadvantages of these four techniques of coordinating: (1) Conference (2) Individual contact (3) Written correspondence (4) Liaison man. (Pause)

Now look at Item 2.

Clearly, a conference has the potential to achieve a high quality of coordination. Persons with expert knowledge and wide experience can share judgements and work out common understandings. In the group interaction, biases can be challenged and oversights corrected. Communication and feedback are immediate. The face-to-face situation minimizes the errors and security breaks which can occur with lengthy communication lines, and also provides management with the pooled judgements of experts. For example: The quarterly fleet scheduling conference, at which representatives of each type commander are present and iron out details for employment of ships for the upcoming quarter. This direct, personal interaction of the participants stimulates
The conference technique has the disadvantage of expense. Some conferees must be brought from distant places. The time consumed at a conference is the sum of the time each participant spends away from his particular job. Fortunately for the military, it is often possible to use government air and to locate the conference at a geographically convenient base facility. A disadvantage is that errors and biases may be communicated in the discussion at a rate too rapid to analyze and correct. Furthermore, the leader or one or more of the participants may dominate the discussions and influence the group to arrive prematurely at invalid conclusions. Much of the success of the conference techniques revolves around the capability of the conference leader. Is he open and friendly? Does he encourage or stifle participation by the group? Is the conference agenda clear? Are committee appointments necessary and assigned early? What about the physical features of the room? The details of planning a good conference are too numerous for in depth consideration, but an effective conference leader is of paramount importance to a successful conference. A disadvantage here is that the conference may depend too much on the social skills of the leader. A military commander who is excellent in most respects may not necessarily be a good conference chairman. Face-to-face individual contact is the most common and probably the most effective technique for coordinating. The two-person discussion in the individual contact lacks the range of knowl-

-6-
edge and opinion provided by a conference. Individual contacts, however, are more readily arranged and encourage a more candid and down-to-earth exchange of viewpoints. Individual contacts also permit more informal approaches to coordinating. For example, the division officer has several subordinates who are somewhat lax in their duties—he has noted several minor violations of rules. It is more logical to explain to them what must change and why. The formal procedure of putting them on report and the possible punishment, could have an adverse effect—could be more severe than conditions warranted. Instead, he should consider the reasons with a view to motivating or helping his subordinates bring their behavior in line with accepted standards. A disadvantage of the face-to-face contact is that it is time consuming, even more than the conference. The leader or responsible coordinator may have to make separate contacts with many concerned persons at many locations. Individual contacts may also be made through supplementary media such as the telephone, radio, teletype, and television. These devices save time in that they enable the coordinating person and people whom he contacts to remain close to their regular work settings. They are also used to facilitate communicating about arrangements, for conferences and other face-to-face contacts. Mainly, these devices are useful in coordinating minor details.

Written correspondence, a third technique of coordinating, may
take many forms (letters, directives, bulletins, manuals, etc.). With wide dissemination, correspondence in these forms enables standardized one-way communication useful for coordinating routine matters. It provides a permanent record which can be studied carefully and acted on at a convenient time. It also permits all the persons in the communication network to remain close to their regular jobs. Correspondence is often used in conjunction with other techniques. It is advisable to follow up individual contacts with a written confirmation of what took place. In advance of a conference, a brochure may be distributed for participants to read as preparation. After the conference, a written summary may be circulated among the participants to obtain their concurrence or to enable them to correct information and add remarks to the proceedings. The main disadvantage of correspondence is that it is slow and thus often impractical for high priority matters. The fourth and last technique of coordinating to be discussed is the liaison man. This technique is essential when key military commanders are not able to carry on sufficient informal exchange of information through direct personal contact. A commander establishes liaison with another unit when he needs to keep informed of developments in that unit. The Marine Corps, for example, maintains a liaison officer at Ft. Sill, Oklahoma, the Army artillery training and development center. He obtains and transmits information
to the Marine HQ about new weapons and procedures while they are still in the discussion stage. Typically, supporting units establish liaison with a supported unit. An example was cited of the naval gunfire liaison officer assigned to a Marine unit ashore to coordinate naval gunfire from ship to shore. He is in a position both to explain the potential firepower of the ships to the Marine commander and to report the needs ashore to the OTC. Liaison is also frequently established between higher and lower headquarters and between adjacent units in an area. The liaison man's primary function is to be a "middle man," to facilitate exchange of information and to suggest how to maintain effective coordination. A liaison man seldom has authority to make binding commitments. It is evident that a liaison man must be quite familiar with the operating conditions and needs of his own unit and be able to explain these to other divisions or groups with whom he maintains contact. Conversely, he must be able to observe the operating needs of other groups and report these back to his own organization. The liaison man may get the impression that he is forever "caught between the rocks and the hard places" as he goes about attempting to find voluntary means of coordination. But he is often in a key position to ensure mutual understanding and to sustain cooperation between units. (Pause)
Now look at Item 3.

Let's summarize the four techniques for coordinating in the light of their main characteristics. The conference is essentially a multiple face-to-face meeting with a structural agenda in which facts and opinions are communicated and examined rapidly under the guidance of a group leader. The size at which a conference group can remain effective will depend on the degree to which the participants have common background and on the capabilities of the leader. The individual technique is a sort of two-way conference. It shares all the psychological advantages of personal contact when the face-to-face approach is used, but loses some effectiveness if the contact is indirect (telephone, radio). The written correspondence technique is more impersonal, and for that reason is best used combined with a personal technique. Its contribution is to provide a convenient permanent record. The liaison technique is primarily a means of maintaining a communications link on a personal basis between high level coordinators. In conclusion, let us discuss the relationship of coordination to other management functions. Your study in this session has been focused around the concepts and functions of management. One of the concepts that you learned about coordination is that it is often referred to as the ESSENCE OF MANAGEMENT. If you were assigned as a division officer, you would find yourself in a managerial situation. Here, you must be able to influence subordinates—they must perform properly—which is an essential part of management. (Pause)
Now look at Item 4.

Some of the specific capabilities you should possess are listed in this item. (Pause 3 sec)

The division officer example used here is relevant. For many MIDN the first managerial role will be either as a division officer, or a junior division officer. You will be supported by guidance from your division officer's guide, as you prepare to meet your management responsibilities. (Pause)

Now look at Item 5.

Let's review, in closing, the relation of coordinating to all other management functions. The management wheel shows that coordinating activity is a part of all these functions. Let's follow this activity as we go around the wheel. If coordination is to be effective, it must be achieved as early in the process as possible. Planning is the first step in the process, so coordination must begin here. Failure to do so will inevitably leave some gap in the plan and make it impossible to carry out the remaining functions effectively. Organizing requires coordination so that the plan will be carried out. Also, organization tasks require coordination for such activities as: allocation of resources, staffing of personnel, identification and assignment of related activities, and development of proper structure. Coordination, here, makes the resultant effort harmonious. An example of this was the pleasure derived from serving on
the Valley Forge--her nickname throughout the fleet was: "The Happy Valley." One of the reasons for this was the almost unconscious effort on the part of both officers and crew, to live up to the nickname. Personnel sought ways to make the operations run smoothly--willingly coordinated at all levels. No less need for coordination is required for directing and controlling. As a leader, you direct by proper utilization of your subordinates--by developing good senior/subordinate relationships. Coordination is a critical tool of leadership. Coordinating efforts are set in motion when leadership controls identify deviations from established procedures. Skillful managers maintain harmonious organization--correct for deviations by control techniques. The main determinant of leadership effectiveness may well be the coordinating approach for improvements. Coordinating activities DO integrate functions of: planning, organizing, directing, and controlling--DO ensure progress toward organizational objectives.

Poor coordination or a failure to coordinate leads to a lack of awareness of the problems of other organizational elements and wasteful duplication of effort, and will prevent unified action. A Joint Congressional Committee investigating the Pearl Harbor attack concluded the following regarding coordination:

".......The most fundamental responsibility that both commanders had under the circumstances, however, was to make certain beyond any reasonable doubt that there was an
integrated and coordinated employment of defensive facilities consistent with the principle of command by mutual cooperation. No excuse or explanation can justify or temper the failure to discharge this responsibility which superseded and surpassed all others."

When mooring a ship alongside a pier, if coordination is lacking between the bridge, the engineroom and the line handlers, gross misunderstanding and utter chaos would result. The conning officer must have control of each element, otherwise confusion will be certain and casualty probable.

This is the end of Part Five, Segment X.
PROGRAM FRAME ANSWERS

PART FIVE

Segments VII, VIII, IX & X
### PROGRAM FRAME ANSWERS

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