PART THREE

Organizational and Strategic Leadership

As they mature and assume greater responsibilities, Army leaders must also learn new skills, develop new abilities, and act in more complex environments. Organizational and strategic leaders maintain their own personalities and propensities, but they also expand what they know and refine what they do.

Chapters 6 and 7 describe (rather than prescribe or mandate) skills and actions required of organizational and strategic leaders. The chapters discuss much of what developing leaders often sense and explore some concepts that may seem foreign to them. Neither chapter outlines exhaustively what leaders know and do at higher levels; they simply introduce what’s different.

The audience for Chapters 6 and 7 is only in part organizational and strategic leaders, who have prepared to serve in those positions by career-long experience and study. Primarily, these chapters offer staffs and subordinates who work for those leaders insight into the additional concerns and activities of organizational and strategic leadership.

Chapter 6

Organizational Leadership

6-1. During the Battle of the Bulge, with the Germans bearing down on retreating US forces, PFC Vernon L. Haught dug in and told a sergeant in a tank destroyer, “Just pull your vehicle behind me . . . I’m the 82d Airborne, and this is as far as the bastards are going.” He knew his division commander’s intent. Despite desperate odds, he had confidence in himself and his unit and knew they would make the difference. Faced with a fluid situation, he knew where the line had to be drawn; he had the will to act and he didn’t hesitate to do what he thought was right.

6-2. Whether for key terrain in combat or for results in peacetime training, leaders in units and organizations translate strategy into policy and practice. They develop programs, plans, and systems that allow soldiers in teams, like the infantryman in the All-American Division,
to turn plans and orders into fire and maneuver that seize victory at the least possible cost in sweat and blood. By force of will and application of their leadership skills, organizational leaders build teams with discipline, cohesion, trust, and proficiency. They clarify missions throughout the ranks by producing an intent, concept, and systematic approach to execution.

6-3. Organizational leadership builds on direct leader actions. Organizational leaders apply direct leader skills in their daily work with their command and staff teams and, with soldiers and subordinate leaders, they influence during their contacts with units. But to lead complex organizations like brigades, divisions, and corps at today’s OPTEMPO and under the stresses of training, contingency operations, and combat, organizational leaders must add a whole new set of skills and actions to their leadership arsenal. They must practice direct and organizational leadership simultaneously.

6-4. Communicating to NCOs, like the airborne soldier at the Battle of the Bulge, occurs through individual subordinates, the staff, and the chain of command. Organizational leaders divide their attention between the concerns of the larger organization and their staffs and those of their subordinate leaders, units, and individuals. This tradeoff requires them to apply interpersonal and conceptual skills differently when exercising organizational leadership than when exercising direct leadership.

6-5. Organizational leaders rely heavily on mentoring subordinates and empowering them to execute their assigned responsibilities and missions. They stay mentally and emotionally detached from their immediate surroundings so they can visualize the larger impact on the organization and mission. Soldiers and subordinate leaders look to their organizational leaders to establish standards for mission accomplishment and provide resources (conditions) to achieve that goal. Organizational leaders provide direction and programs for training and execution that focus efforts on mission success.

6-6. Due to the indirect nature of their influence, organizational leaders assess interrelated systems and design long-term plans to accomplish the mission. They must sharpen their abilities to assess their environments, their organization, and their subordinates. Organizational leaders determine the cause and effect of shortcomings, translate these new understandings into plans and programs, and allow their subordinate leaders latitude to execute and get the job done.

6-7. Organizational demands also differ as leaders develop a systems perspective. At the strategic level, the Army has identified six imperatives: quality people, training, force mix, doctrine, modern equipment, and leader development. In organizations these imperatives translate into doctrine, training, leader development, organization, materiel, and soldiers—commonly called DTLOMS. Together with Army values, these systems provide the framework for influencing people and organizations at all levels, conducting a wide variety of operations, and continually improving the force. Doctrine includes techniques to drive the functional systems in Army organizations. FMs 25-100, 25-101, and 101-5 lay out procedures for training management and military decision making that enable and focus execution. The training management and military decision-making processes provide a ready-made, systemic approach to planning, preparing, executing, and assessing.
SECTION I
WHAT IT TAKES TO LEAD ORGANIZATIONS—SKILLS

6-8. Organizational leaders continue to use the direct leader skills discussed in Chapter 4. However, their larger organizations and spans of authority require them to master additional skills. As with direct leader skills, these span four areas: interpersonal, conceptual, technical, and tactical.

INTERPERSONAL SKILLS

To get the best out of your men, they must feel that you are their real leader and must know that they can depend upon you.

General of the Armies John J. Pershing

6-9. Good organizational leaders understand the human dimension, which Chapter 3 discussed. They use that understanding to motivate subordinates and to encourage initiative. Chapter 5 explained that motivation means much more than an individual willingness to do what’s directed. It imparts a desire on the part of individuals and organizations to do what’s needed without being directed. This collective desire to accomplish the mission underlies good organizational discipline: good soldiers and competent DA civilians adhere to standards because they understand that doing so, even when it’s a nuisance or hardship, leads to success.

6-10. This understanding, along with Army values, forms the foundation of great units. Units that have solid discipline can take tremendous stress and friction yet persevere, fight through, and win. Fostering initiative builds on motivation and discipline. It requires subordinates’ confidence that in an uncertain situation, when they know the commander’s intent and develop a competent solution, the commander will underwrite the risk they take. While this principle applies to both direct and organizational leaders, the stakes are usually higher in larger, more complex organizations. Additionally, organizational leaders may be more remote in time and distance and subordinates’ ability to check back with them is diminished. Therefore, organizational leaders’ understanding must develop beyond what they can immediately and personally observe.

UNDERSTANDING SOLDIERS

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COMMUNICATING

6-11. Persuasion is a communication skill important to organizational leaders. Well-developed skills of persuasion and an openness to working through controversy in a positive way help organizational leaders overcome resistance and build support. These characteristics are particularly important in dealing with other organizational leaders. By reducing grounds for misunderstanding, persuasion reduces time wasted in overcoming unimportant issues. It also
involvement of others, opens communication with them, and places value on their opinions—all team-building actions. Openness to discussing one’s position and a positive attitude toward a dissenting view often diffuses tension and saves time and resistance in the long run. By demonstrating these traits, organizational leaders also provide an example that subordinates can use in self-development.

6-12. In some circumstances, persuasion may be inappropriate. In combat, all leaders make decisions quickly, modifying the decision-making process to fit the circumstances. But this practice of using the directing leadership styles as opposed to more participatory ones should occur when situations are in doubt, risks are high, and time is short—circumstances that often appear in combat. No exact blueprints exist for success in every context; leadership and the ability to adapt to the situation will carry the day. Appropriate style, seasoned instinct, and the realities of the situation must prevail.

SUPERVISING

6-13. Organizations pay attention to things leaders check. Feedback and coaching enhance motivation and improve performance by showing subordinates how to succeed. But how much should you check and how much is too much? When are statistics and reports adequate indicators and when must you visit your front-line organizations, talk to your soldiers and DA civilians and see what’s going on yourself?

6-14. Overcentralized authority and oversupervising undermine trust and empowerment. Undersupervising can lead to failure, especially in cases where the leader’s intent wasn’t fully understood or where subordinate organizations lack the training for the task. Different subordinate commanders need different levels of supervision: some need a great deal of coaching and encouragement, though most would just as soon be left alone. As always, a good leader knows his subordinates and has the skill to supervise at the appropriate level.

Knowing Your People

This General said, “Each of our three regimental commanders must be handled differently. Colonel ‘A’ does not want an order. He wants to do everything himself and always does well. Colonel ‘B’ executes every order, but has no initiative. Colonel ‘C’ opposes everything he is told to do and wants to do the contrary.”

A few days later the troops confronted a well-entrenched enemy whose position would have to be attacked. The General issued the following orders:

To Colonel “A” (who wants to do everything himself): “My dear Colonel “A”, I think we will attack. Your regiment will have to carry the burden of the attack. I have, however, selected you for this reason. The boundaries of your regiment are so-and-so. Attack at X-hour. I don’t have to tell you anything more.”

To Colonel “C” (who opposes everything): “We have met a very strong enemy. I am afraid we will not be able to attack with the forces at our disposal.” “Oh, General, certainly we will attack. Just give my regiment the time of attack and you will see that we are successful,” replied Colonel “C.” “Go then, we will try it,” said the General, giving him the order for the attack, which he had prepared some time previously.

To Colonel “B” (who always must have detailed orders) the attack order was merely sent with additional details.

All three regiments attacked splendidly.

Adolph von Schell
German liaison to the Infantry School between the World Wars
The complexity of the organizational leader’s environment requires patience, the willingness to think before acting. Furthermore, the importance of conceptual and analytical skills increases as an organizational leader moves into positions of greater responsibility. Organizational environments with multiple dimensions offer problems that become more abstract, complex, and uncertain.

Figure 6-2 identifies the conceptual skills required of organizational leaders. For organizational leaders, reasoning skills are crucial for developing intent and direction toward common goals. Critical thinking at the organizational level requires understanding systems and an increased ability to filter information, that is, to identify quickly information that applies to the task at hand and separate the important from the unimportant. Organizational leaders use this analytical ability to assess ambiguous environments and to calculate and manage risk. Their experience may allow them to see and define problems more easily—but not necessarily fix them quickly. Therefore, they also dedicate time to think and generate alternative ways of organizing their organizations and resources for maximum effect. It’s important for organizational leaders to encourage critical thinking in subordinates because subordinates also assess organizational challenges, analyze indicators, and recommend courses of action. It’s also important, time and mission permitting, to allow subordinates’ solutions to bear fruit.

ESTABLISHING INTENT

In an organization like ours, you have to think through what it is that you are becoming. Like a marathon runner, you have to get out in front, mentally, and pull the organization to you. You have to visualize the finish line—to see yourself there—and pull yourself along—not push—pull yourself to the future.

General Gordon R. Sullivan
Former Army Chief of Staff

Intent is the leader’s personal expression of a mission’s end state and the key tasks the organization must accomplish to achieve it. During operations and field training, it’s a clear, concise statement of what the force must do to succeed with respect to the enemy and the terrain and to the desired end state. It provides the link between the mission and the concept of operations. By describing their intent, organizational leaders highlight the key tasks that, along with the mission, are the basis for subordinates to exercise initiative when unanticipated opportunities arise or when the original concept of operations no longer applies. Clear and concise, the leader’s intent includes a mission’s overall purpose and expected results. It provides purpose, motivation, and direction, whether the leader is commanding a division or running a staff directorate. An organizational leader visualizes the sequence of activities that will move the organization from its current state to the desired end state and expresses it as simply and clearly as possible. (FM 101-5-1 contains a complete definition of commander’s intent. FM 100-34 discusses the relationship of intent and visualization to command and...
control. FM 101-5 discusses the development of intent in the MDMP.)

6-18. After establishing a clear and valid intent, the art of organizational leadership lies in having subordinates take actions on their own to transform that intent into reality. Since organizational leaders are likely to be farther away from the point of execution in time and space, they must describe the collective goal rather than list tasks for individual subordinates. With clearly communicated purpose and direction, subordinates can then determine what they must do and why. Within that broad framework, leaders empower subordinates, delegating authority to act within the intent: “Here’s where we’re headed, why we’re going there, and how we’re going to get there.” Purpose and direction align the efforts of subordinates working toward common goals.

6-19. A former division commander has said, “You must be seen to be heard.” There’s a great temptation for organizational leaders to rely exclusively on indirect leadership, to spread intent by passing orders through subordinates or communicating electronically with troops scattered far and wide. However, nothing can take the place of face-to-face contact. Organizational leaders make every effort to get out among the troops. There they can spot-check intent to see that it’s disseminated and understood among those who must execute it.

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**GEN Grant and the End of the Civil War**

*I propose to fight it out on this line if it takes all summer.*

General Ulysses S. Grant
Dispatch, May 11, 1864

GEN Ulysses S. Grant penned those words at Spotsylvania, Virginia, after being appointed general in chief of the Union Army and stationing himself forward with the Army of the Potomac. After fighting a bloody draw at the Wilderness, the Army of the Potomac had moved aggressively to outflank GEN Robert E. Lee’s Army of Northern Virginia but once more faced a dug-in Confederate Army. However, where previous Union commanders had turned away, GEN Grant would not relent. His intent was clear. It was reinforced in the sentiment of his army, which wanted to finish the war.

In a series of determined attacks, the new Union commander broke GEN Lee’s defense and used a turning movement to force his opponent out of position. Again they met at Cold Harbor, where GEN Grant attacked frontally and failed. Prior to his attack, Union soldiers, literally days from the end of their enlistment, were seen writing notes to their families and pinning them on the backs of their shirts so one last message would get home if they were killed. Their resolution demonstrates the power of their commitment to a shared intent.

After his bloody repulse at Cold Harbor, GEN Grant again moved south, maintaining the initiative, always pressing, always threatening to turn the Confederate flank and expose Richmond, the capital of Virginia. GEN Lee, in turn, was forced to block and defend Petersburg, Richmond’s railroad hub. Uncovering it would have isolated Richmond as well as his army’s rail-based lines of communication. GEN Grant had his opponent pinned to a critical strategic resource. Doing this denied the Army of Northern Virginia its greatest asset, its excellent ability to maneuver. It would not escape.

GEN Grant was unstinting in his resolve to totally defeat GEN Lee. He was a familiar figure to his soldiers, riding among them with his slouch hat in his private’s uniform with general’s rank. He drove his subordinates, who themselves wanted to finish off their old foe; despite casualties, he unflinchingly resisted pressure to back away from his intent.
6-20. Having established an azimuth, organizational leaders assist their subordinates’ efforts to build and train their organizations on those tasks necessary for success. Finally, they act to motivate subordinate leaders and organizations to meet the operational standards upon which discipline depends.

**FILTERING INFORMATION**

_Leaders at all levels, but particularly those at higher levels who lack recent personal observations, can only make decisions based on the information given to them. What sets senior leaders apart is their ability to sort through great amounts of information, key in on what is significant, and then make decisions. But, these decisions are only as good as the information provided._

A Former Battalion Commander

6-21. Organizational leaders deal with a tremendous amount of information. Some information will make sense only to someone with a broad perspective and an understanding of the entire situation. Organizational leaders communicate clearly to their staffs what information they need and then hold the staff accountable for providing it. Then, they judge—based on their education, training, and experience—what’s important and make well-informed, timely decisions.

6-22. Analysis and synthesis are essential to effective decision-making and program development. Analysis breaks a problem into its component parts. Synthesis assembles complex and disorganized data into a solution. Often, data must be processed before it fits into place.

6-23. Commander’s critical information requirements (CCIR) are the commander’s most important information filters. Commanders must know the environment, the situation, their organizations, and themselves well enough to articulate what they need to know to control their organizations and accomplish their missions. They must also ensure they have thought through the feedback systems necessary to supervise execution. Organizational-level commanders must not only establish CCIR but also train their staffs to battle drill proficiency in information filtering. (FM 101-5 discusses CCIR, mission analysis, information management, and other staff operations.)

**UNDERSTANDING SYSTEMS**

6-24. Organizational leaders think about systems in their organization: how they work together, how using one affects the others, and how to get the best performance from the whole. They think beyond their own organizations to how what their organization does affects other organizations and the team as a whole. Whether coordinating fires among different units or improving sponsorship of new personnel, organizational leaders use a systems perspective. While direct leaders think about tasks, organizational leaders integrate, synchronize, and fine-tune systems and monitor outcomes. If organizational leaders can’t get something done, the flaw or failure is more likely systemic than human. Being able to understand and leverage systems increases a leader’s ability to achieve organizational goals and objectives.

6-25. Organizational leaders also know how effectively apply all available systems to achieve mission success. They constantly make sure that the systems for personnel, administration, logistical support, resourcing, and training work effectively. They know where to look to see if the critical parts of the system are functioning properly.
Organizational leaders analyze systems and results to determine why things happened the way they did. Performance indicators and standards for systems assist them in their analysis. Equipment failure rates, unit status reports (USR) Standard Installation/Division Personnel System (SIDPERS), Defense Civilian Personnel Data System (DCPDS) data, and evaluation report timeliness all show the health of systems. Once an assessment is complete and causes of a problem known, organizational leaders develop appropriate solutions that address the problem’s root cause.

Isolating why things go wrong and where systems break down usually requires giving subordinates time and encouragement to ferret out what’s really happening. The dilemma for organizational leaders occurs when circumstances and mission pressures require immediate remedial action and preclude gathering more data. It’s then that they must fall back on their experience and that of their subordinates, make a judgment, and act.

During Operation Desert Shield, a contingent of DA civilians deployed to a depot in the combat theater to provide warfighting supplies and operational equipment to Third (US) Army. These DA civilians were under the supervision of DA civilian supervisors, who motivated their employees in spite of the harsh conditions in the region: hot weather, a dismal environment, and the constant threat of Iraqi missile and chemical attacks. It turned out that the uplifting organizational climate these leaders provided overcame the physical deprivation.

Two senior DA civilian leaders, the depot’s deputy director of maintenance and the chief of the vehicle branch, developed a plan to replace arriving units’ M1 tanks with M1A1s, which boasted greater firepower, better armor, and a more advanced nuclear, biological, and chemical protective system. They also developed systems for performing semiannual and annual maintenance checks, quickly resolving problems, applying modifications such as additional armor, and repainting the tanks in the desert camouflage pattern.

Although similar programs normally take 18 to 24 months to complete, the two leaders set an ambitious objective of 6 months. Many experts thought the goal could not be met, but the tenacious leaders never wavered in their resolve. After 24-hour-a-day, 7-day-a-week operations, their inspired team of teams completed the project in 2 months. These DA civilian leaders with clear intent, firm objectives, and unrelenting will motivated their team and provided modern, lethal weapons to the soldiers who needed them when they were needed.

Innovative Reorganization

Facing a long-term downsizing of his organization, a DA civilian director didn’t simply shrink its size. Instead, the director creatively flattened the organization by reducing the number of deputy executives, managers, and supervisors. The director increased responsibilities of those in leadership positions and returned to a technical focus those managers and supervisors with dominant mission skills. The result was a better leader-to-led ratio, a reduced number of administrative and clerical positions, and a smoother transition to multidisciplined team operations. The director’s systems understanding led him to tailor inputs that maintained healthy systems and improved outputs.
6-28. The external responsibilities of organizational leaders are greater than those of direct leaders, both vertically and horizontally. Their organizations have more levels than direct-level organizations and, depending on the organization’s role, command interest may reach to the CINC or national command authority. There are more requirements to coordinate with other organizations, which may include agencies outside the Department of Defense (DOD). To make full use of their organizations’ capabilities, organizational leaders must continue to master technical skills outside their original area of expertise.

MAINTAINING CRITICAL SKILLS

6-29. Organizational leaders have fewer opportunities to practice many of the technical skills they mastered as direct leaders. However, that doesn’t mean they can forget about them. In every organization there are certain skills in which all members must be proficient. Soldiers know what they are and expect their leaders to be able to perform them. This doesn’t mean that organizational leaders must be able to perform every specialty-related skill as well as an individual holding that specialty. The Army is too complex for that. It does, however, mean that organizational leaders must identify and be proficient in those critical, direct-leader skills they need to assess tactical training and set the example.

6-30. One organizational leader who set the example by drawing on deeply embedded technical skills was COL Marian Tierney. In her final military assignment, COL Tierney was responsible for nursing operations at 38 hospitals with 2500 nurses in the Republic of Vietnam. In 1966 she had to call on the basic medical skills and personal character she had honed throughout a career in places like Omaha Beach during the Normandy invasion. That day, 22 years after D-Day, the aircraft on which she was a passenger crashed, leaving many injured and panicked survivors. Ignoring her own injuries COL Tierney treated her comrades and took charge of evacuating the scene. For her heroism she received the Soldier’s Medal. Her actions demonstrate that courageous leaders of character and competence serve at all levels.

RESOURCING

6-31. In addition to using the technical skills they learned as direct leaders, organizational leaders must also master the skill of resourcing. Resources—which include time, equipment, facilities, budgets, and people—are required to achieve organizational goals. Organizational leaders must aggressively manage the resources at their disposal to ensure their organizations’ readiness. The leader’s job grows more difficult when unprogrammed costs—such as an emergency deployment—shift priorities.

6-32. Organizational leaders are stewards of their people’s time and energy and their own will and tenacity. They don’t waste these resources but skillfully evaluate objectives, anticipate resource requirements, and efficiently allocate what’s available. They balance available resources with organizational requirements and distribute them in a way that best achieves organizational goals—in combat as well as peacetime. For instance, when a cavalry squadron acting as the division flank guard
makes contact, its commander asks for priority of fires. The division commander considers the needs of the squadron but must weigh it against the overall requirements of the current and future missions.

**PREDICTING SECOND- AND THIRD-ORDER EFFECTS**

6-33. Because the decisions of organizational leaders have wider-ranging effects than those of direct leaders, organizational leaders must be more sensitive to how their own actions affect the organization’s climate. These actions may be conscious, as in the case of orders and policies, or unconscious, such as requirements for routine or unscheduled reports and meetings. The ability to discern and predict secondand third-order effects helps organizational leaders assess the health of the organizational climate and provide constructive feedback to subordinates. It can also result in identifying resource requirements and changes to organizations and procedures. (The ECAS process illustrated in Appendix D or a similar one can be applied by organizational as well as direct leaders.)

6-34. For instance, when the Army Chief of Staff approved a separate military occupational specialty code for mechanized infantry soldiers, the consequences were wide-ranging. Second-order effects included more specialized schooling for infantry NCOs, a revised promotion system to accommodate different infantry NCO career patterns, and more doctrinal and training material to support the new specialty. Third-order effects included resource requirements for developing the training material and adding additional instructor positions at the Infantry Center and School. Organizational leaders are responsible for anticipating the consequences of any action they take or direct. Requiring thorough staff work can help. However, proper anticipation also requires imagination and vision as well as an appreciation for other people and organizations.

**TACTICAL SKILLS**

_Soldiers need leaders who know how to fight and how to make the right decisions._

General Carl F. Vuono
Former Army Chief of Staff

6-35. Organizational leaders must master the tactical skills of synchronization and orchestration. Synchronization applies at the tactical level of war; orchestration is an operational-level term. Synchronization arranges activities in time, space, and purpose to focus maximum relative military power at a decisive point in space and time. Organizational leaders synchronize battles, each of which may comprise several synchronized engagements. (FM 100-40 discusses synchronization. FM 100-5 discusses orchestration.)

6-36. Organizational leaders at corps and higher levels orchestrate by applying the complementary and reinforcing effects of all military and nonmilitary assets to overwhelm opponents at one or more decisive points. Both synchronization and orchestration require leaders to put together technical, interpersonal,
and conceptual skills and apply them to war-fighting tasks.

6-37. Tactical skill for direct leaders involves employing individuals and teams of company size and smaller. In contrast, tactical skill for organizational leaders entails employing units of battalion size and larger. Organizational leaders get divisions, brigades, and battalions to the right place, at the right time, and in the right combination to fight and win battles and engagements. (FM 100-40 discusses battles and engagements.) They project the effects of their decisions further—in time and distance—than do direct leaders.

6-38. The operational skill of orchestrating a series of tactical events is also more demanding and far-reaching. Time horizons are longer. Effects take more time to unfold. Decision sets are more intricate. GEN Grant’s Vicksburg campaign in the spring of 1863, which split the Confederacy and opened the Mississippi River to Union use, is a classic example of an organizational leader orchestrating the efforts of subordinate forces.

6-39. Organizational leaders know doctrine, tactics, techniques, and procedures. Their refined tactical skills allow them to understand, integrate, and synchronize the activities of systems, bringing all resources and systems to bear on warfighting tasks.

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**GEN Grant at Vicksburg**

After failing to capture Vicksburg by attacking from the north, GEN Ulysses S. Grant moved along the west bank of the Mississippi River to a point south of the city. He masked his movement and intentions by sending COL Benjamin Grierson’s cavalry deep into Mississippi to conduct a series of raids. The Union commander also synchronized the daring dispatch of US Navy gunboats through Confederate shore batteries to link up with his army south of Vicksburg. Using Admiral (ADM) David D. Porter’s gunboats, the Union Army crossed to the east bank of the Mississippi while MG William T. Sherman conducted a diversionary attack on the northern approaches to Vicksburg.

Once across the Mississippi, GEN Grant bypassed Vicksburg, used the Big Black River to protect his flank, and maneuvered east toward Jackson, Mississippi. By threatening both Jackson and Vicksburg, GEN Grant prevented Confederate forces from uniting against him. After a rapid series of engagements, the Union Army forced the enemy out of Jackson, blocking Vicksburg’s main line of supply. It then turned west for an assault of Vicksburg, the key to control of the Mississippi. With supply lines severed and Union forces surrounding the city, Confederate forces at Vicksburg capitulated on 4 July 1863.

GEN Grant’s Vicksburg campaign demonstrates the orchestration of a series of subordinate unit actions. In a succession of calculated moves, he defeated the Confederate forces under the command of Generals Joseph E. Johnston and John C. Pemberton, gained control of the Mississippi River, and divided the Confederacy.
SECTION II
WHAT IT TAKES TO LEAD ORGANIZATIONS—ACTIONS

Making decisions, exercising command, managing, administering—those are the dynamics of our calling. Responsibility is its core.

6-40. Actions by organizational leaders have far greater consequences for more people over a longer time than those of direct leaders. Because the connections between action and effect are sometimes more remote and difficult to see, organizational leaders spend more time thinking about what they’re doing and how they’re doing it than direct leaders do. When organizational leaders act, they must translate their intent into action through the larger number of people working for them.

6-41. Knowledge of subordinates is crucial to success. To maximize and focus the energy of their staffs, organizational leaders ensure that subordinates know what must be done and why. In addition, they ensure that work being done is moving the organization in the right direction. They develop concepts for operations and policies and procedures to control and monitor their execution. Since the challenges they face are varied and complicated, no manual can possibly address them all. However, the following section provides a framework for examining, explaining, and reflecting on organizational leader actions.

INFLUENCING ACTIONS

A soldier may not always believe what you say, but he will never doubt what you do.

The Battalion Commander’s Handbook

6-42. As Figure 6-5 shows, influencing is achieved through communicating, decision making, and motivating. At the organizational level, influencing means not only getting the order or concept out; it means marshaling the activities of the staff and subordinate leaders to move towards the organization’s objective. Influencing involves continuing to reinforce the intent and concept, continually acquiring and assessing available feedback, and inspiring subordinates with the leader’s own presence and encouragement.

6-43. The chain of command provides the initial tool for getting the word out from, and returning feedback to, the commander. In training, commanders must constantly improve its functioning. They must stress it in training situations, pushing it to the point of failure. Combat training centers (CTCs) offer tremendous opportunities to exercise and assess the chain of command in their
communicating and monitoring tasks. Programs for officer and NCO professional development based on either terrain walks or seminars can reinforce chain of command functioning. Checking organizational functions daily (“leading by walking around”) can reveal whether the commander’s intent is getting to the lowest level.

6-44. Communication becomes more complex for organizational leaders because of their increased span of control and separation from elements actually executing the mission. Whatever organizational leaders ask for, explicitly or implicitly, causes ripples throughout the organization. Therefore, they must consider how subordinates might interpret their wishes. Directives and actions must be clear and issued in a manner that discourages overreaction. The installation commander who remarks out loud about bland walls may cause an entire organization’s soldiers to paint all weekend (it has happened).

6-45. Organizational leaders also lose the right to complain in public; for example, their opinion of a support agency affects the attitude of hundreds or thousands of people. Where the leader is, how the leader looks, and what the leader does and says influence routine leadership actions throughout the organization. Like direct leaders, organizational leaders are always on display, and their demeanor and presence set the tone and climate for subordinate organizations. However, the position of organizational leaders makes them more prominent, and they must remain aware of how their behavior affects their organization. A bad day for the leader should not have to be a bad day for everyone else.

COMMUNICATING

Too often we place the burden of comprehension on [those at a different level from] us, assuming both the existence of a common language and motivation.

General Edward C. Meyer
Former Army Chief of Staff

6-46. Ironically, organizational leaders’ face-to-face communication must be more powerful, more focused, and more unequivocal than direct leaders’ communication. Because organizational leaders move quickly from one project to another and one part of the organization to the other, they must be careful that the right message goes out the first time. Poor communication can have tremendously negative consequences.

Know Yourself

6-47. Even before assuming an organizational, leadership position, leaders must assess themselves, understand their strengths and weaknesses, and commit to an appropriate leadership philosophy. Organizational leaders must realize that some techniques that worked in direct-level positions may no longer work at the organizational level. They must resist the temptation to revert to their old role and thus preempt their subordinates by making decisions for them.

6-48. That said, personal qualities that contributed to their previous success are still important for organizational leaders. They must be themselves. They must know their biases, frustrations, and desires and try to keep these factors from negatively influencing their communication. It’s not enough to be careful about what they say. Nonverbal communication is so powerful that organizational leaders need to be aware of personal mannerisms, behavioral quirks, and demeanor that reinforce or contradict a spoken message.

Know the Purpose

6-49. Organizational leaders know themselves, the mission, and the message. They owe it to their organization and their people to share as much as possible. People have to know what to do and why. At the most basic level, communication provides the primary way that organizational leaders show they care. If subordinates are to succeed and the organization is to move forward, then the organizational leader must work hard at maintaining positive communication. Encouraging open dialogue, actively listening to all perspectives, and ensuring that subordinate leaders and staffs can have a forthright, open, and honest voice in the organization without fear of negative consequences.
greatly fosters communication at all levels. Organizational leaders who communicate openly and genuinely reinforce team values, send a message of trust to subordinates, and benefit from subordinates’ good ideas.

**The Commander’s Notebook**

A brigade commander met with his subordinate leaders and outlined his goals for an upcoming training exercise. In the days following, while the brigade staff worked on the formal orders and requirements, the commander spent time visiting subordinate units as they trained. As a part of each visit, he asked his subordinate leaders for specific feedback on his intent. Was it clear? Could they repeat the three main points he had tried to make? What would they add to the unit’s goals for the training? He listened, asked his own questions, and allowed them to question him. It turned out that most of the people he spoke to missed one of his three main points, which led the commander to believe that he hadn’t made himself clear the first time. Eventually, he started the conversation by saying, “There are a couple of points I tried to make in my talk; apparently, I dropped the ball on at least one of them. Let me take another shot at it.” Then he explained the point again.

Whenever subordinate leaders offered suggestions about the upcoming exercise, the brigade commander took out a pocket notebook and wrote some notes. Even when suggestions sounded lame, he wrote them down. That way, he signaled to the speaker, “Yes, your opinion counts, too.” Secondly, by writing down the ideas, the commander guaranteed himself a chance to look at the comments later. He knew from experience that sometimes the ones that don’t seem to make sense at first turn out to be quite useful later. Many of the direct leaders remarked that they had never seen a brigade commander do anything like that before. They were even more astonished when they got feedback on the suggestion. The brigade adjutant even explained to one company commander why his suggestion wasn’t implemented. On a Saturday morning the brigade commander was standing in line at the PX when a platoon sergeant engaged him in conversation. “I wasn’t around the day you visited my company last week, sir,” the NCO said, “but I heard the other folks had a few suggestions for you. I wonder if I could add something?”

**Know the Environment**

6-50. Before organizational leaders can effectively communicate, they must assess the environment—people, events, and systems—and tailor their message to the target audience. Organizational leaders constantly communicate by persuading and conveying intent, standards, goals, and priorities at four levels within the Army: their people, their own and higher staffs, their subordinate leaders and commanders, and their superiors. There may also be occasions that require organizational leaders to speak to audiences outside the Army such as the media or community groups. They may have to repeat the message to different audiences and retune it for different echelons, but only leaders can reinforce their true intent.

**Know the Boss**

6-51. Working to communicate consistently with the boss is especially important for organizational leaders. Organizational leaders have to figure out how to reach the boss. They must assess how the boss communicates and how the boss receives information. For some leaders, direct and personal contact is best; others may be more comfortable with weekly meetings, e-mail, or letters. Knowing the boss’s intent, priorities, and thought processes greatly enhances organizational success. An organizational leader who communicates well with the boss minimizes friction between the organization and the higher headquarters and improves the overall organizational climate.
Know the Subordinates

If it’s dumb it’s not our policy.

Lieutenant General Walter F. Ulmer Jr.
Former Commanding General, III Corps

6-52. The mere presence of an organizational leader somewhere communicates the leader’s character and what the leader values. The organizational leader who hurries through a talk about caring for subordinates, then passes up an opportunity to speak face-to-face with some soldiers, does more than negate the message; he undercuts whatever trust his subordinates may have had.

6-53. Because organizational leaders know themselves, they also know that others bring the sum total of their experience to their duties. They analyze interpersonal contact to gather meaning; they look for the message behind the words. In this way, they gain a greater understanding of peers, subordinates, and superiors. Improving communication skills becomes a major self-development challenge for them. By stating their intent openly, organizational leaders give subordinates an open door for feedback on unintended consequences or just bad policy: “Hey sir, did you really mean it when you said, ‘If it’s dumb it’s not our policy?’ OK, well what about...?” Leaders must be seen to be heard.

Know the Best Method

6-56. To disseminate information accurately and rapidly, organizational leaders must also develop an effective communications network. Some of these networks—such as the chain of command, the family support network, the NCO support channel, and staff relationships—simply need to be recognized and exploited. Other informal chains must be developed. Different actions may require different networks.

6-57. The more adept organizational leaders become in recognizing, establishing, and using these networks, the more successful the outcome, especially as they become comfortable using a wider range of communications forums. Memorandums, notes, and e-mail as well as formal and informal meetings, interactions, and publications are tools of an effective communicator. Organizational leaders must know the audiences these methods reach and use them accordingly.

DECISION MAKING

The key is not to make quick decisions, but to make timely decisions.

General Colin Powell
Former Chairman, Joint Chiefs of Staff

6-58. Organizational leaders are far more likely than direct leaders to be required to make decisions with incomplete information. They determine whether they have to decide at all, which decisions to make themselves, and which ones to push down to lower levels. To determine the right course of action, they consider possible second- and third-order effects and think further into the future—months, or even years, out in the case of some directorates.

6-59. Organizational leaders identify the problem, collect input from all levels, synthesize that input into solutions, and then choose and execute the best solution in time to make a
difference. To maximize the use of resources and have the greatest effect on developing an effective organization, organizational leaders move beyond a reacting, problem-solving approach to an anticipating, problem-preemption method. While there will always be emergencies and unforeseen circumstances, organizational leaders focus on anticipating future events and making decisions about the systems and people necessary to minimize crises. Vision is essential for organizational leaders.

6-60. During operations, the pace and stress of action increase over those of training. Organizational leaders use the MDMP to make tactical decisions; however, they must add their conceptual skill of systems understanding to their knowledge of tactics when considering courses of action. Organizational leaders may be tempted—because of pressure, the threat, fear, or fatigue—to abandon sound decision making by reacting to short-term demands. The same impulses may result in focusing too narrowly on specific events and losing their sense of time and timing. But there’s no reason for organizational leaders to abandon proven decision-making processes in crises, although they shouldn’t hesitate to modify a process to fit the situation. In combat, success comes from creative, flexible decision making by leaders who quickly analyze a problem, anticipate enemy actions, and rapidly execute their decisions. (Remember GEN Grant’s actions at Vicksburg.) Leaders who delay or attempt to avoid a decision may cause unnecessary casualties and even mission failure.

6-61. Effective and timely decision making—both the commander’s and subordinates’—is crucial to success. As part of decision making, organizational leaders establish responsibility and accountability among their subordinates. They delegate decision making authority as far as it will go, empowering and encouraging subordinates to make decisions that affect their areas of responsibility or to further delegate that authority to their own subordinates.

6-62. Effective organizational leaders encourage initiative and risk-taking. They remember that they are training leaders and soldiers; the goal is a better-trained team, not some ideal outcome. When necessary, they support subordinates’ bad decisions, but only those made attempting to follow the commander’s intent. Failing through want of experience or luck is forgivable. Negligence, indecision, or attempts to take an easy route should never be tolerated.

6-63. As GEN Powell’s comment makes clear, a decision’s timeliness is as important as the speed at which it is made. Just as for direct leaders, a good decision now is better than a perfect one too late. Leaders who are good at handling the decision-making process will perform better when the OPTEMPO speeds up. Leaders who don’t deliver timely decisions leave their subordinates scrambling and trying to make up for lost time. Better to launch the operation with a good concept and let empowered subordinates develop subsequent changes to the plan than to court failure by waiting too long for the perfect plan.

6-64. In tough moments, organizational leaders may need the support of key subordinates to close an issue. Consider MG George G. Meade’s position at Gettysburg. In command of the Army of the Potomac for only a few days, MG Meade met with his subordinates on the night of 2 July 1863 after two days of tough fighting. Uncertainty hung heavy in the air. MG Meade’s decision to stand and fight, made with the support of his corps commanders, influenced the outcome of the battle and became a turning point of the Civil War.

6-65. Coping with uncertainty is normal for all leaders, increasingly so for organizational leaders. Given today’s information technology, the dangerous temptation to wait for all available information before making a decision will persist. Even though this same technology may also bring the unwanted attention of a superior, leaders should not allow it to unduly influence their decisions. Organizational leaders are where they are because of their experience, intuition, initiative, and judgment. Events move quickly, and it’s more important for decisive organizational leaders to recognize and seize opportunities, thereby creating success, than to wait for all the facts and risk failure.
6-66. In the end, leaders bear ultimate responsibility for their organizations’ success or failure. If the mission fails, they can’t lay the blame elsewhere but must take full responsibility. If the mission succeeds, good leaders give credit to their subordinates. While organizational leaders can’t ensure success by being all-knowing or present everywhere, they can assert themselves throughout the organization by being decisive in times of crisis and quick to seize opportunities. In combat, leaders take advantage of fleeting windows of opportunity: they see challenges rather than obstacles; they seek solutions rather than excuses; they fight through uncertainty to victory.

**MOTIVATING**

*It is not enough to fight. It is the spirit which we bring to the fight that decides the issue. It is morale that wins the victory.*

General of the Army George C. Marshall

6-67. Interpersonal skills involved in creating and sustaining ethical and supportive climates are required at the organizational as well as the direct leadership level. As Chapter 3 explains, the organizational, unit, or command climate describes the environment in which subordinates work. Chapter 5 discusses how direct leaders focus their motivational skills on individuals or small groups of subordinates. While direct leaders are responsible for their organizations’ climate, their efforts are constrained (or reinforced) by the larger organization’s climate. Organizational leaders shape that larger environment. Their primary motivational responsibility is to establish and maintain the climate of their entire organization.

6-68. Disciplined organizations evolve within a positive organizational climate. An organization’s climate springs from its leader’s attitudes, actions, and priorities. Organizational leaders set the tone most powerfully through a personal example that brings Army values to life. Upon assuming an organizational leadership position, a leader determines the organizational climate by assessing the organization from the bottom up. Once this assessment is complete, the leader can provide the guidance and focus (purpose, direction, and motivation) required to move the organizational climate to the desired end state.

6-69. A climate that promotes Army values and fosters the warrior ethos encourages learning and promotes creative performance. The foundation for a positive organizational climate is a healthy ethical climate, but that alone is insufficient. Characteristics of successful organizational climates include a clear, widely known intent; well-trained and confident soldiers; disciplined, cohesive teams; and trusted, competent leadership.

6-70. To create such a climate, organizational leaders recognize mistakes as opportunities to learn, create cohesive teams, and reward leaders of character and competence. Organizational leaders value honest feedback and constantly use all available means to maintain a feel for the environment. Staff members who may be good sources for straightforward feedback may include equal opportunity advisors and chaplains. Methods may include town hall meetings, surveys, and councils. And of course, personal observation—getting out and talking to DA civilians, soldiers, and family members—brings organizational leaders face-to-face with the people affected by their decisions and policies. Organizational leaders’ consistent, sincere effort to see what’s really going on and fix things that are not working right can result in mutual respect throughout their organizations. They must know the intricacies of the job, trust their people, develop trust among them, and support their subordinates.

6-71. Organizational leaders who are positive, fair, and honest in their dealings and who are not afraid of constructive criticism encourage an atmosphere of openness and trust. Their people willingly share ideas and take risks to get the job done well because their leaders strive for more than compliance; they seek to develop subordinates with good judgment.
6-72. Good judgment doesn’t mean lockstep thinking. Thinking “outside the box” isn’t the same as indiscipline. In fact, a disciplined organization systematically encourages creativity and taking prudent risks. The leader convinces subordinates that anything they break can be fixed, except life or limb. Effective organizational leaders actively listen to, support, and reward subordinates who show disciplined initiative. All these things create opportunities for subordinates to succeed and thereby build their confidence and motivation.

6-73. However, it’s not enough that individuals can perform. When people are part of a disciplined and cohesive team, they gain proficiency, are motivated, and willingly subordinate themselves to organizational needs. People who sense they’re part of a competent, well-trained team act on what the team needs; they’re confident in themselves and feel a part of something important and compelling. These team members know that what they do matters and discipline themselves.

The 505th Parachute Infantry Regiment at Normandy

On 7 June 1944, the day after D-Day, nearly 600 paratroopers of the 505th Parachute Infantry Regiment were in position in the town of Ste. Mère Église in Normandy to block any German counterattack of the Allied invasion force. Although outnumbered by an enemy force of over 6,000 soldiers, the paratroopers attacked the German flank and prevented the enemy’s assault. The paratroopers were motivated and well-trained, and they all understood the absolute necessity of preventing the German counterattack. Even in the fog of war, they did what needed to be done to achieve victory. Their feat is especially noteworthy since many landed outside their planned drop zones and had to find their units on their own. They did so quickly and efficiently in the face of the enemy.

The 505th combined shared purpose, a positive and ethical climate, and cohesive, disciplined teams to build the confidence and motivation necessary to fight and win in the face of uncertainty and adversity. Both leaders and soldiers understood that no plan remains intact after a unit crosses the line of departure. The leaders’ initiative allowed the disciplined units to execute the mission by following the commander’s intent, even when the conditions on the battlefield changed.

OPERATING ACTIONS

6-74. Organizational leaders see, decide, and act as they perform the operating actions shown in Figure 6-6. They emphasize teamwork and cooperation over competition. They provide their intent so subordinates can accomplish the mission, no matter what happens to the original plan. Because organizational leaders primarily work through subordinates, empowerment and delegation are indispensable. As a result of communicating with subordinates, listening to their responses, and obtaining feedback from their assessments, organizational leaders are better equipped to make decisions.

6-75. Organizational-level commanders usually use the MDMP for tactical decision
making and planning. However, those who command in the joint environment must use the Joint Operation Planning and Execution System (JOPES) methodology. Both the MDMP and JOPES allow organizational commanders to apply the factors discussed in this chapter.

**SYSTEMS PLANNING AND PREPARING**

[A] good plan violently executed now is better than a perfect plan next week.

General George S. Patton Jr.  
*War As I Knew It*

6-76. GEN Patton wasn’t belittling the importance of planning; he was emphasizing the balance necessary for successful operations. Planning, getting ready for the future by laying out how leaders aim to turn their intent into reality, is something leaders do every day and something the Army does very well. However, organizational leaders plan for the systems that support training and operations as well as for the actual training event or operation. Systems planning involves seven steps:

- Establish intent.
- Set goals.
- Determine objectives.
- Determine tasks.
- Establish priorities.
- Follow up.

**Establish Intent**

6-77. The first step in systems planning is for the organizational leader to have a clear intent for what he wants the organization to be. What will it look like at some future point? Spending extra time visualizing the end state up front is more important than quickly jumping into the mechanics of planning. Obviously, the actual mission is critical in determining this end state. The organizational leader’s intent should be announced at the earliest practicable time after it has been formulated so the staff and subordinate commanders can have maximum time to plan. For a division, the intent might be—

- The best infantry division in the world.
- Supported by the finest installation in the Army.
- Trained and ready to deploy anywhere in the world to fight and win.
- But flexible enough to accomplish any other mission the nation asks us to perform.
- A values-based organization that takes care of its soldiers, DA civilians, and families.

6-78. Organizational leaders must determine how this intent affects the various systems for which they are responsible. By their actions and those of their subordinates and by using their presence to be heard, organizational leaders bring meaning for their intent to their people.

**Set Goals**

6-79. Once they have established their intent, organizational leaders, with the help of their team of subordinate leaders and staffs, set specific goals for their organizations. Goals frame the organizational leader’s intent. For instance, the goal “Improve fire control and killing power” could support that part of the intent that states the division will be “trained and ready to deploy anywhere in the world to fight and win.” Organizational leaders are personally involved in setting goals and priorities to execute their intent and are aware that unrealistic goals punish subordinates.

**Determine Objectives**

6-80. In the third step, organizational leaders establish objectives that are specific and measurable. For example, an objective that supports the goal of improving fire control and killing power could be “Fifty percent of the force must fire expert on their personal weapons.” Establishing objectives is difficult because the process requires making precise calls from a wide variety of options. Since time and resources are limited, organizational leaders make choices about what can and cannot be accomplished. They check key system nodes to monitor subsystem functions.

**Determine Tasks**

6-81. The fourth step involves determining the measurable, concrete steps that must be taken on the way to the objective. For example, the
commander of a forward-stationed division might ensure family readiness by ordering that any newly arriving soldier with a family may not be deployed without having a vehicle in country and household goods delivered.

**Establish Priorities**

6-82. The fifth step is to establish a priority for the tasks. This crucial step lets subordinates know how to spend one of their most critical resources: time.

6-83. This system of establishing priorities is important for the organization; organizational leaders must also practice it personally. In fact, a highly developed system of time management may be the only way for organizational leaders to handle all the demands upon them. There’s rarely enough time to do everything, yet they must make the time to assess and synthesize information and make timely decisions. Leaders who recognize distractions are better equipped to handle their time well.

**Prepare**

6-84. Though organizational leaders have more complex missions than direct leaders, they also have more assets: a staff and additional subordinate leaders, specialists, and equipment allow their preparation to be diverse and complete. Direct leaders prepare by getting individuals moving in the right direction; organizational leaders take a step back and check to make sure the systems necessary to support the mission are in place and functioning correctly.

**Follow Up**

6-85. The final step in systems planning is to follow up: Does the team understand the tasks? Is the team taking the necessary actions to complete them? Check the chain of command again: does everyone have the word? Organizational leader involvement in this follow up validates the priorities and demonstrates that the leader is serious about seeing the mission completed. Organizational leaders who fail to follow up send a message that the priorities are not really that important and that their orders are not really binding.

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**The “Paperwork Purge”**

The division’s new chief of staff was surprised at how much time subordinates spent at meetings; it seemed they had time for little else. After observing the way things worked for two weeks, the chief did away with most of the scheduled meetings, telling the staff, “We’ll meet when we need to meet, and not just because it’s Friday morning.” What’s more, the chief required an agenda for each meeting ahead of time: “That way, people can do their homework and see who needs to be there and who doesn’t.” The chief was always on time for meetings and started at the time specified on the agenda. There were no interruptions of whomever had the floor, and the long, meandering speeches that had marked previous meetings were cut short.

The chief put a one-page limit on briefing papers for the boss. This meant subordinates learned to write concisely. Each staff section did a top-to-bottom review of procedures that had been in place as long as anyone could remember. Anything that couldn’t be justified was thrown out. The chief handled most of the correspondence that came across his desk with a quick note written on the original and told the staff to do the same.

The chief made the staff justify requirements they sent to subordinate organizations, with the comment, “If you can’t tell them why it’s important, then maybe it’s not important.” The explanation also helped subordinate elements determine their own priorities: “You can’t keep sending stuff down saying, ‘This is critical!’ It gets to be like the boy who cried wolf.”
6-86. Keeping their intent in mind, organizational leaders fight distracters, make time to reflect, and seek to work more efficiently. Despite the pressure of too much to do in too little time, they keep their sense of humor and help those around them do the same.

**THE CREATIVE STAFF PROCESS**

None of us is as smart as all of us.

A Former Brigade Commander

6-87. The size and complexity of the organizations led by organizational leaders requires well-trained, competent staffs. Training these staffs is a major responsibility of organizational leaders. The chief of staff or executive officer is the organizational leader’s right hand in that effort.

6-88. In the 100 days leading to the Battle of Waterloo, Napoleon had to campaign without his intensely loyal and untiring chief of staff, Berthier. In all his other campaigns, Berthier had transformed Napoleon’s orders into instructions to the marshals, usually in quadruplicate with different riders carrying four copies to the same marshal over different routes. Berthier’s genius for translating Napoleon’s intent into tasks for each corps underlay the French Army’s versatile, fluid maneuver style. Without Berthier and with an increasingly rigid Napoleon disdaining advice from any source, Napoleon’s formations lost a good deal of their flexibility and speed.

6-89. Great staffs work in concert with the leader to turn intent into reality. A single leader in isolation has no doubt done great things and made good decisions. However, the organizational leader alone can’t consistently make the right decisions in an environment where operational momentum never stops.

6-90. Building a creative, thinking staff requires the commander’s time, maturity, wisdom, and patience. Although managing information is important, the organizational leader needs to invest in both quality people and in training them to think rather than just process information. Several factors contribute to building a creative, thinking staff.

**The Right People**

6-91. A high-performing staff starts with putting the right people in the right places. Organizational leaders are limited to their organization’s resources, but have many choices about how to use them. They assemble, from throughout their organizations, people who think creatively, possess a vast array of technical skills, are trained to solve problems, and can work together. They take the time to evaluate the staff and implement a training program to improve it as a whole. They avoid micromanaging the staff, instead trusting and empowering it to think creatively and provide answers.

**The Chief of Staff**

6-92. The staff needs its own leader to take charge—someone who can focus it, work with it, inspire it, and move it to decisive action in the absence of the commander. The sections of the staff work as equals, yet without superb leadership they won’t perform exceptionally.
To make a staff a true team, an empowered deputy must be worthy of the staff and have its respect. The chief of staff must have the courage to anticipate and demand the best possible quality. On the other hand, the chief must take care of the hardworking people who make up the staff and create an environment that fosters individual initiative and develops potential. (FM 100-34 discusses the role of the chief of staff.)

Challenging Problems
6-93. A staff constantly needs challenging problems to solve if it’s to build the attitude that it can overcome any obstacle. Tackling problems with restricted time and resources improves the staff members’ confidence and proficiency, as long as they get an opportunity to celebrate successes and to recharge their batteries. Great confidence comes from training under conditions more strenuous than they would likely face otherwise.

Clear Guidance
6-94. The commander constantly shares thoughts and guidance with the staff. Well-trained staffs can then synthesize data according to those guidelines. Computers, because of their ability to handle large amounts of data, are useful analytical tools, but they can do only limited, low-order synthesis. There’s no substitute for a clear commander’s intent, clearly understood by every member of the staff.

EXECUTING
The American soldier demonstrated that, properly equipped, trained, and led, he has no superior among all the armies of the world.

General Lucian K. Truscott
Former Commanding General, 5th Army

6-95. Planning and preparation for branches and sequels of a plan and contingencies for future operations may continue, even during execution. However, execution is the purpose for which the other operating actions occur; at some point, the organizational leader commits to action, spurs his organization forward, and sees the job through to the end. (FM 100-34 and FM 101-5 discuss branches and sequels.)

6-96. In combat, organizational leaders integrate and synchronize all available elements of the combined arms team, empower subordinates, and assign tasks to accomplish the mission. But the essence of warfighting for organizational leaders is their will. They must persevere despite limitations, setbacks, physical exhaustion, and declining mental and emotional reserves. They then directly and indirectly energize their units—commanders and soldiers—to push through confusion and hardship to victory.

6-97. Whether they’re officers, NCOs, or DA civilians, the ultimate responsibility of organizational-level leaders is to accomplish the mission. To this end, they must mass the effects of available forces on the battlefield, to include supporting assets from other services. The process starts before the fight as leaders align forces, resources, training, and other supporting systems.

Combined Arms and Joint Warfighting
6-98. Brigades and battalions usually conduct single-service operations supported by assets from other services. In contrast, the large areas of responsibility in which divisions and corps operate make division and corps fights joint by nature. Joint task forces (JTFs) are also organizational-level formations. Therefore, organizational leaders and their staffs at division-level and higher must understand joint procedures and concerns at least as well as they understand Army procedures and concerns. In addition, it’s not unusual for a corps to control forces of another nation; divisions do also, but not as frequently. This means that corps and division headquarters include liaison officers from other nations. In some cases, these staffs may have members of other nations permanently assigned: such a staff is truly multinational.

6-99. Today’s operations present all Army leaders—but particularly organizational leaders—with a nonlinear, dynamic environment ranging the full spectrum of continuous operations. These dispersed conditions create an information-intense environment that challenges leaders to synchronize their efforts...
with nonmilitary and often nongovernmental agencies.

Empowering

*Never tell people how to do things. Tell them what to do and they will surprise you with their ingenuity.*

General George S. Patton Jr.  
*War As I Knew It*

6-100. To increase the effects of their will, organizational leaders must encourage initiative in their subordinates. Although unity of command is a principle of war, at some level a single leader alone can no longer control all elements of an organization and personally direct the accomplishment of every aspect of its mission. As leaders approach the brigade or directorate level, hard work and force of personality alone cannot carry the organization. Effective organizational leaders delegate authority and support their subordinates’ decisions, while holding subordinates accountable for their actions.

6-101. Delegating successfully involves convincing subordinates that they’re empowered, that they indeed have the freedom to act independently. Empowered subordinates have, and know they have, more than the responsibility to get the job done. They have the authority to operate in the way they see fit and are limited only by the leader’s intent.

6-102. To do that, the organizational leader gives subordinates the mission, motivates them, and lets them go. Subordinates know that the boss trusts them to make the right things happen; this security motivates them, in turn, to lead their people with determination. They know the boss will underwrite honest mistakes, well-intentioned mistakes—not stupid, careless, or repeated ones. So for the boss, empowering subordinates means building the systems and establishing the climate that gives subordinates the rein to do the job within the bounds of acceptable risk. It means setting organizational objectives and delegating tasks to ensure parallel, synchronized progress.

6-103. Delegation is a critical task: Which subordinates can be trusted with independent action? Which need a short rein? In fluid situations—especially in combat, where circumstances can change rapidly or where leaders may be out of touch or become casualties—empowered subordinates will pursue the commander’s intent as the situation develops and react correctly to changes that previous orders failed to anticipate. However, as important as delegation is to the success of organizations, it does not imply in any way a reduction of the commander’s responsibility for the outcome. Only the commander is accountable for the overall outcome, the success or failure, of the mission.

**ASSESSING**

6-104. The ability to assess a situation accurately and reliably—a critical tool in the leader’s arsenal—requires instinct and intuition based on experience and learning. It also requires a feel for the reliability and validity of information and its sources. Organizational assessment is necessary to determine organizational weaknesses and preempt mishaps. Accurately determining causes is essential to training management, developing subordinate leadership, and process improvement.

6-105. There are several different ways to gather information: asking subordinates questions to find out if the word is getting to them, meeting people, and checking for synchronized plans are a few. Assessing may also involve delving into the electronic databases upon which situational understanding depends. Assessment techniques are more than measurement tools; in fact, the way a leader assesses something can influence the process being assessed. The techniques used may produce high quality, useful feedback; however, in a dysfunctional command climate, they can backfire and send the wrong message about priorities.

6-106. Staff and subordinates manage and process information for a leader, but this doesn’t relieve the leader from the responsibility of analyzing information as part of the decision-making process. Leaders obtain information from various sources so they can compare and make judgments about the accuracy of sources.
6-107. As Third Army commander during World War II, GEN George Patton did this continuously. Third Army staff officers visited front-line units daily to gather the latest available information. In addition, the 6th Cavalry Group, the so-called “Household Cavalry” monitored subordinate unit reconnaissance nets and sent liaison patrols to visit command and observation posts of units in contact. These liaison patrols would exchange information with subordinate unit G2s and G3s and report tactical and operational information directly to the Third Army forward headquarters (after clearing it with the operations section of the unit they were visiting).

6-108. In addition to providing timely combat information, the Household Cavalry and staff visits reduced the number of reports Third Army headquarters required and created a sense of cohesiveness and understanding not found in other field armies. Other organizational leaders have accomplished the same thing using liaison officers grounded in their commander’s intent. Whatever the method they choose, organizational leaders must be aware of the second- and third-order effects of having “another set of eyes.”

6-109. In the world of digital command and control, commanders may set screens on various command and control systems to monitor the status of key units, selected enemy parameters, and critical planning and execution timelines. They may establish prompts in the command and control terminal that warn of imminent selected events, such as low fuel levels in maneuver units, tight fighter management timelines among aviation crews, or massing enemy artillery.

6-110. A leader’s preconceived notions and opinions (such as “technology undermines basic skills” or “technology is the answer”) can interfere with objective analysis. It’s also possible to be too analytical, especially with limited amounts of information and time. Therefore, when analyzing information, organizational leaders guard against dogmatism, impatience, or overconfidence that may bias their analysis.

6-111. The first step in designing an assessment system is to determine the purpose of the assessment. While purposes vary, most fall into one of the following categories:

- Evaluate progress toward organizational goals (using an emergency deployment readiness exercise to check unit readiness or monitoring progress of units through stages of reception, staging, onward movement, and integration).
- Evaluate the efficiency of a system, that is, the ratio of the resources expended to the results gained (comparing the amount of time spent performing maintenance to the organization’s readiness rate).
- Evaluate the effectiveness of a system, that is, the quality of the results it produces (analyzing the variation in Bradley gunnery scores).
- Compare the relative efficiency or effectiveness against standards.
- Compare the behavior of individuals in a group with the prescribed standards (APFT or gunnery scores).
- Evaluate systems supporting the organization (following up “no pay dues” to see what the NCO support channel did about them).

6-112. Organizational leaders consider the direct and indirect costs of assessing. Objective costs include the manpower required to design and administer the system and to collect, analyze, and report the data. Costs may also include machine-processing times and expenses related to communicating the data. Subjective costs include possible confusion regarding organizational priorities and philosophies, misperceptions regarding trust and decentralization, fears over unfair use of collected data, and the energy expended to collect and refine the data.

6-113. Organizational leaders ask themselves these questions: What’s the standard? Does the standard make sense to all concerned? Did we meet it? What system measures it? Who’s responsible for the system? How do we reinforce or correct our findings? One of the greatest contributions organizational leaders can make to their organizations is to assess their own leadership actions: Are you doing things the way you would to support the nation at war? Will
your current systems serve equally well under the stress and strain of continuous fighting? If not, why not?

6-114. It follows that organizational leaders who make those evaluations every day will also hold their organizations to the highest standards. When asked, their closest subordinates will give them informal AARs of their leadership behaviors in the critical situations. When they arrange to be part of official AARs, they can invite subordinates to comment on how they could have made things go better. Organizational leader errors are very visible; their results are probably observed and felt by many subordinates. Thus, there’s no sense in not admitting, analyzing, and learning from these errors. A bit of reflection in peacetime may lead to greater effectiveness in war.

6-115. The 1991 ground war in the Iraqi desert lasted only 100 hours, but it was won through hard work over a period of years, in countless field exercises on ranges and at the combat training centers. The continual assessment process allowed organizational leaders to trade long hours of hard work in peacetime for operations in war.

6-116. Organizational leaders are personally dedicated to providing tough, battle-focused training so that the scrimmage is always harder than the game. They must ensure that in training, to the extent that resources and risks allow, nothing is simulated. Constant assessments refine training challenges, forge confidence, and foster the quiet, calculating, and deadly warrior ethos that wins battles and campaigns. (FM 25-100 and FM 25-101 discuss battle focus and training assessment.)

6-117. Improving actions are what all leaders do today to make their organization and subordinates better tomorrow, next month, next year, five years from now. The responsibility for how the Army fights the next war lies with today’s leaders; the work to improve the organization in the long term never ends. Leaders teaching subordinates to do the leader’s job in combat is the hallmark of the profession of arms.

6-118. The payoff for improving actions might not be evident for years. In fact, leaders at all levels may never see the benefit of developing subordinates, since those subordinates go on to work for someone else. But this doesn’t stop them from taking pride in their subordinates’ development and performance; a subordinate’s success is a great measure of a leader’s success. Further, it’s often difficult to draw a cause-and-effect line from what leaders do today to

**IMPROVING ACTIONS**

_The creative leader is one who will rewrite doctrine, employ new weapons systems, develop new tactics and who pushes the state of the art._

John O. Marsh Jr.
Former Secretary of the Army

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**Figure 6-7. Organizational Leader Actions—Improving**
how it pays off tomorrow. Precisely because of these difficulties, organizational leaders ensure the goals they establish include improving people and organizations. They also make sure they communicate this to their subordinates.

6-119. The developing, building, and learning actions may be more difficult at the organizational level because the leaders themselves must rely more on indirect leadership methods. The challenge is greater because of the size of the organization, but the rewards increase as well: organizational leaders can influence large numbers of people and improve large segments of the Army.

DEVELOPING

Let us set for ourselves a standard so high that it will be a glory to live up to it, and then let us live up to it and add a new laurel to the crown of America.

Woodrow Wilson
28th President of the United States

6-120. Just as leadership begins at the top, so does developing. Organizational leaders keep a focus on where the organization needs to go and what all leaders must be capable of accomplishing. They continually develop themselves and mentor their subordinate leaders. As discussed in Chapter 3, leaders search for and take advantage of opportunities to mentor their subordinates. At the organizational level, commanders ensure that systems and conditions are in place for the mentoring of all organizational members.

6-121. Effective organizational leaders grow leaders at all levels of their organization. Just as they prepare their units for in-stride breaches, for example, they combine existing opportunities into a coherent plan for leadership development. Leaders get much of their development when they practice what they’ve learned and receive straightforward feedback in rigorously honest AARs. Feedback also comes from self-assessments as well as from peers, subordinates, and supervisors.

6-122. Organizational leaders design and integrate leader development programs into everyday training. They aim to capture learning in common duties, ensure timely feedback, and allow reflection and analysis. As Frederick the Great said, “What good is experience if you do not reflect?” Simply scheduling officer and NCO professional development sessions isn’t enough for genuine, lasting leader development. Letting “operating” overwhelm “improving” threatens the future.

6-123. Leadership development is purposeful, not accidental. Everyday mission requirements are opportunities to grow leaders. Based on assessment of their subordinate leaders, organizational leaders describe how they intend to deliberately influence leader development through a comprehensive leadership development program that captures and harnesses what’s already occurring in the organization. A leadership development program must provide for learning skills, practicing actions, and receiving feedback.

6-124. Organizational leaders assess their organizations to determine organization-specific developmental needs. They analyze their mission, equipment, and long-term schedule as well as the experience and competence of their subordinate leaders to determine leadership requirements. In addition to preparing their immediate subordinates to take their place, organizational leaders must also prepare subordinate leaders selected for specific duties to actually execute them.

6-125. Based on their assessment, organizational leaders define and clearly articulate their goals and objectives for leadership development within the organization. They create program goals and objectives to support their focus as well as to communicate specific responsibilities for subordinate leaders. These subordinate leaders help bring leadership development to life through constant mentoring and experiential learning opportunities. Leadership development is an important responsibility shared by leaders at every level. It becomes their greatest contribution—their legacy.

6-126. The development technique used depends on the leaders involved. Learning by making mistakes is possible, but having subordinates develop habits of succeeding is better
for instilling self-confidence and initiative. Newly assigned assistant operations officers may need time to visit remote sites over which they have day-to-day control. They may need time to visit higher headquarters to establish rapport with those action officers they will have to deal with under the pressure of a tense operational situation. They may have to see the tactical operations center set up in the field and get a chance to review its SOPs before a big exercise. These activities can only happen if the organizational leader supports the leader development program and demands it take place in spite of the pressures of daily (routine) business.

6-127. There are many ways to tackle leader development. For example, instead of pursuing long-term training programs for his career civilians, one DA civilian leader enrolled both his DA civilian managers and military officers in graduate programs while they continued to work full-time. This approach allowed the directorate to provide development opportunities to four times as many personnel at one-third the cost of long-term training. In addition, the students were able to apply what they were learning directly to their jobs, thus providing immediate benefit to the organization.

6-128. In addition to educational programs, innovative interagency exchange assignments can cross-level the knowledge, skills, and experience of DA civilian leaders. Whether taking on new interns or expanding the perspectives of seasoned managers, the DA civilian component mirrors the uniformed components in its approach to broad-based leadership opportunities.

6-129. Often developmental programs involve historical events similar to current operational challenges. Such situations allow all to share a sense of what works and what does not from what worked before and what did not. This analysis can also be applied to recent organizational experiences. For example, in preparation for a CTC rotation, leaders review their own as well as others’ experiences to determine valuable lessons learned. They master the individual and collective tasks through a training program that sets up soldiers and leaders for success. Based on internal AARs, they continue to learn, practice, and assess. CTCs also provide individual leaders with invaluable experience in operating under harsh conditions. Organizations execute missions, receive candid feedback and coaching to facilitate lessons learned, then execute again.

6-130. Commanders must take the time to ensure they do developmental counseling. Nothing can replace the face-to-face contribution made by a commander mentoring a subordinate. Developing the most talented and (often) those with the greatest challenges requires a great amount of time and energy, but it’s an essential investment for the future.

**BUILDING**

**Building Combat Power**

6-131. Emphasis on winning can’t waver during training, deploying, and fighting. By developing the right systems and formulating appropriate contingency plans, organizational leaders ensure that the organization is prepared for a variety of conditions and uncertainties. In wartime, building combat power derives from task organization, resourcing, and preparing for execution while still meeting the human needs of the organization. Commanders must preserve and recycle organizational energy throughout the campaign. In peacetime, the main component of potential combat power is embedded collective skill and organizational readiness stemming from hard, continuous, and challenging training to standard.

**Building Teams**

*All United States military doctrine is based upon reliance on the ingenuity of the individual working on his own initiative as a member of a team and using the most modern weapons and equipment which can be provided him.*

General Manton S. Eddy
Commanding General, XII Corps, World War II

6-132. Organizational leaders rely on others to follow and execute their intent. Turning a battlefield vision or training goals into reality takes the combined efforts of many teams inside and outside of the leader’s organization.
Organizational leaders build solid, effective teams by developing and training them and sustain those teams by creating healthy organizational climates.

6-133. Organizational leaders work consistently to create individual and team ownership of organizational goals. By knowing their subordinates—their aspirations, fears, and concerns—organizational leaders can ensure their subordinate organizations and leaders work together. Taking time to allow subordinates to develop ways to meet organizational missions fosters ownership of a plan. The FM 25-100 training management process, in which subordinate organizations define supporting tasks and suggest the training required to gain and maintain proficiency, is an example of a process that encourages collective investment in training. That investment leads to a commitment that not only supports execution but also reduces the chances of internal conflict.

6-134. Subordinates work hard and fight tenaciously when they’re well-trained and feel they’re part of a good team. Collective confidence comes from winning under challenging and stressful conditions. People’s sense of belonging comes from technical and tactical proficiency—as individuals and then collectively as a team—and the confidence they have in their peers and their leaders. As cohesive teams combine into a network, a team of teams, organizations work in harness with those on the left and right to fight as a whole. The balance among three good battalions is more important than having a single outstanding one. Following that philosophy necessarily affects resource allocation and task assignment.

6-135. Organizational leaders build cohesive organizations. They overcome, and even capitalize on, diversity of background and experience to create the energy necessary to achieve organizational goals. They resolve conflicts among subordinate leaders as well as any conflicts between their own organization and others.

6-136. For example, subordinate leaders may compete for limited resources while pursuing their individual organization’s goals. Two battalion commanders may both want and need a certain maneuver training area to prepare for deployment, so they both present the issue professionally and creatively to their commander. The brigade commander must then weigh and decide between the different unit requirements, balancing their competing demands with the greater good of the entire organization and the Army. An even better situation would be if the organizational climate facilitates teamwork and cooperation that results in the subordinate commanders themselves producing a satisfactory solution.

6-137. Similarly, the brigade commander’s own interests may at times conflict with that of other organizations. He must maintain a broad perspective and develop sensible solutions for positive resolution with his contemporaries. In both these cases, subordinates observe the actions of leaders and pattern their attitudes and actions after them. Everyone, even experienced leaders, looks up the chain of command for the example of “how we do it here,” how to do it right. Organizational leaders empower their subordinates with a powerful personal example.

6-138. Like direct leaders, organizational leaders build teams by keeping team members informed. They share information, solicit input, and consider suggestions. This give-and-take also allows subordinates a glimpse into the mind of their leaders, which helps them prepare for the day when they fill that job. The leader who sends these messages—“I value your opinion; I’m preparing you for greater responsibilities; you’re part of the team”—strengthens the bonds that hold the team together.

6-139. Team building produces trust. Trust begins with action, when leaders demonstrate discipline and competence. Over time, subordinates learn that leaders do what they say they’ll do. Likewise leaders learn to trust their subordinates. That connection, that mutual assurance, is the link that helps organizations accomplish the most difficult tasks. (FM 100-34 discusses the importance of building trust for command and control.)
LEARNING

6-140. Organizational leaders create an environment that supports people within their organizations learning from their own experiences and the experiences of others. How leaders react to failure and encourage success now is critical to reaching excellence in the future. Subordinates who feel they need to hide mistakes deprive others of valuable lessons. Organizational leaders set the tone for this honest sharing of experiences by acknowledging that not all experiences (even their own) are successful. They encourage subordinates to examine their experiences, and make it easy for them to share what they learn.

6-141. Learning is continuous and occurs throughout an organization: someone is always experiencing something from which a lesson can be drawn. For this reason, organizational leaders ensure continual teaching at all levels; the organization as a whole shares knowledge and applies relevant lessons. They have systems in place to collect and disseminate those lessons so that individual mistakes become organizational tools. This commitment improves organizational programs, processes, and performances.

SECTION III

A HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE OF ORGANIZATIONAL LEADERSHIP—GENERAL RIDGWAY IN KOREA

6-142. Few leaders have better exemplified effective organizational leadership in combat than GEN Matthew B. Ridgway. GEN Ridgway successfully led the 82d Airborne Division and XVIII Airborne Corps in the ETO during World War II and Eighth (US) Army during the Korean War. His actions during four months in command of Eighth Army prior to his appointment as UN Supreme Commander bring to life the skills and actions described throughout this chapter.

6-143. At the outbreak of the Korean War in June 1950, GEN Ridgway was assigned as the Army Deputy Chief of Staff, Operations. In an agreement between the Army Chief of Staff, GEN J. Lawton Collins, and the UN Supreme Commander, GA Douglas MacArthur, GEN Ridgway was identified early as the replacement for the Eighth Army commander, GEN Walton H. Walker, in the event GEN Walker was killed in combat.

6-144. That year, on 23 December, GEN Walker died in a jeep accident. Following approval by Secretary of Defense George C. Marshall and President Truman, GEN Ridgway was ordered to take command of Eighth Army. At that time, Eighth Army was defending near the 38th parallel, having completed a 300-mile retreat after the Chinese intervention and stunning victory on the Chongchin River.

6-145. The UN defeat had left its forces in serious disarray. One of Eighth Army’s four American divisions, the 2d, needed extensive replacements and reorganization. Two other divisions, the 25th and 1st Cavalry, were seriously battered. Of the Republic of Korea divisions, only the 1st was in good fighting shape. A British brigade was combat ready, but it too had suffered substantial losses in helping cover the retreat.

6-146. Within 24 hours of GEN Walker’s death, GEN Ridgway was bound for Korea. During the long flight from Washington, DC, to GA MacArthur’s headquarters in Japan, GEN Ridgway had an opportunity to reflect on what lay ahead. He felt this problem was like so many others he had experienced: “Here’s the situation—what’s your solution?” He began to formulate his plan of action. He determined each step based on his assessment of the enemy’s strengths and capabilities as well as his own command’s strengths and capabilities.
6-147. The necessary steps seemed clear: gain an appreciation for the immediate situation from GA MacArthur’s staff, establish his presence as Eighth Army commander by sending a statement of his confidence in them, and then meet with his own staff to establish his priorities. His first message to his new command was straight to the point: “You will have my utmost. I shall expect yours.”

6-148. During the flight from Japan to his forward command post, GEN Ridgway carefully looked at the terrain upon which he was to fight. The battered Eighth Army had to cover a rugged, 100-mile-long front that restricted both maneuver and resupply. Poor morale presented a further problem. Many military observers felt that Eighth Army lacked spirit and possessed little stomach for continuing the bruising battle with the Chinese.

6-149. For three days GEN Ridgway traveled the army area by jeep, talking with commanders who had faced the enemy beyond the Han River. GEN Ridgway wrote later, 

*I held to the old-fashioned idea that it helped the spirits of the men to see the Old Man up there, in the snow and the sleet and the mud, sharing the same cold, miserable existence they had to endure.*

6-150. GEN Ridgway believed a commander should publicly show a personal interest in the well-being of his soldiers. He needed to do something to attract notice and display his concern for the front-line fighters. Finding that one of his units was still short of some winter equipment, GEN Ridgway dramatically ordered that the equipment be delivered within 24 hours. In response, the logistical command made a massive effort to comply, flying equipment from Pusan to the front lines. Everyone noticed. He also ordered—and made sure the order was known—that the troops be served hot meals, with any failures to comply reported directly to him.

6-151. GEN Ridgway was candid, criticizing the spirit of both the commanders and soldiers of Eighth Army. He talked with riflemen and generals, from front-line foxholes to corps command posts. He was appalled at American infantrymen who didn’t patrol, who had no knowledge of the terrain in which they fought, and who failed to know the whereabouts of their enemy. Moreover, this army was roadbound and failed to occupy commanding terrain overlooking its positions and supply lines. GEN Ridgway also sensed that Eighth Army—particularly the commanders and their staffs—kept looking over their shoulders for the best route to the rear and planned only for retreat. In short, he found his army immobilized and demoralized.

6-152. An important part of GEN Ridgway’s effort to instill fighting spirit in Eighth Army was to order units to close up their flanks and tie in with other units. He said he wanted no units cut off and abandoned, as had happened to the 3d Battalion, 8th Cavalry at Unsan, Task Force Faith at Chosin Reservoir, and the 2d Division at Kuni-ri. GEN Ridgway felt that it was essential for soldiers to know they would not be left to fend for themselves if cut off. He believed that soldiers would be persuaded to stand and fight only if they realized help would come. Without that confidence in the command and their fellow soldiers, they would pull out, fearing to be left behind.

6-153. As he visited their headquarters, GEN Ridgway spoke to commanders and their staffs. These talks contained many of his ideas about proper combat leadership. He told his commanders to get out of their command posts and up to the front. When commanders reported on terrain, GEN Ridgway demanded that they base their information on personal knowledge and that it be correct.

6-154. Furthermore, he urged commanders to conduct extensive training in night fighting and make full use of their firepower. He also required commanders to personally check that their men had adequate winter clothing, warming tents, and writing materials. In addition, he encouraged commanders to locate wounded who had been evacuated and make every effort to return them to their old units. Finally, the army commander ordered his officers to stop wasting resources, calling for punishment of those who lost government equipment.
6-155. During its first battle under GEN Ridgway’s command in early January 1951, Eighth Army fell back another 70 miles and lost Seoul, South Korea’s capital. Major commanders didn’t carry out orders to fall back in an orderly fashion, use field artillery to inflict the heaviest possible enemy casualties, and counterattack in force during daylight hours. Eighth Army’s morale and sense of purpose reached their lowest point ever.

6-156. Eighth Army had only two choices: substantially improve its fighting spirit or get out of Korea. GEN Ridgway began to restore his men’s fighting spirit by ordering aggressive patrolling into areas just lost. When patrols found the enemy few in number and not aggressive, the army commander increased the number and size of patrols. His army discovered it could drive back the Chinese without suffering overwhelming casualties. Buoyed by these successes, GEN Ridgway ordered a general advance along Korea’s west coast, where the terrain was more open and his forces could take advantage of its tanks, artillery, and aircraft.

6-157. During this advance, GEN Ridgway also attempted to tell the men of Eighth Army why they were fighting in Korea. He sought to build a fighting spirit in his men based on unit and soldier pride. In addition, he called on them to defend Western Civilization from Communist degradation, saying:

In the final analysis, the issue now joined right here in Korea is whether Communism or individual freedom shall prevail; whether the flight of the fear-driven people we have witnessed here shall be checked, or shall at some future time, however distant, engulf our own loved ones in all its misery and despair.

6-158. In mid-February of 1951, the Chinese and North Koreans launched yet another offensive in the central area of Korea, where US tanks could not maneuver as readily and artillery could be trapped on narrow roads in mountainous terrain. In heavy fights at Chipyon-ni and Wonju, Eighth Army, for the first time, repulsed the Communist attacks. Eighth Army’s offensive spirit soared as GEN Ridgway quickly followed up with a renewed attack that took Seoul and regained roughly the same positions Eighth Army had held when he first took command. In late March, Eighth Army pushed the Communist forces north of the 38th parallel.

6-159. GEN Ridgway’s actions superbly exemplify those expected of organizational leaders. His knowledge of American soldiers, units, and the Korean situation led him to certain expectations. Those expectations gave him a baseline from which to assess his command once he arrived. He continually visited units throughout the army area, talked with soldiers and their commanders, assessed command climate, and took action to mold attitudes with clear intent, supreme confidence, and unyielding tactical discipline.

6-160. He sought to develop subordinate commanders and their staffs by sharing his thoughts and expectations of combat leadership. He felt the pulse of the men on the front, shared their hardships, and demanded they be taken care of. He pushed the logistical systems to provide creature comforts as well as the supplies of war. He eliminated the skepticism of purpose, gave soldiers cause to fight, and helped them gain confidence by winning small victories. Most of all, he led by example.

6-161. In April GEN Ridgway turned Eighth Army over to GEN James A. Van Fleet. In under four months, a dynamic, aggressive commander had revitalized and transformed a traumatized and desperate army into a proud, determined fighting force. GA Omar N. Bradley, Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, summed up GEN Ridgway’s contributions:

It is not often that a single battlefield commander can make a decisive difference. But in Korea Ridgway would prove to be that exception. His brilliant, driving, uncompromising leadership would turn the tide of battle like no other general’s in our military history.
6-162. This chapter has covered how organizational leaders train and lead staffs, subordinate leaders, and entire organizations. The influence of organizational leaders is primarily indirect: they communicate and motivate through staffs and subordinate commanders. Because their leadership is much more indirect, the eventual outcomes of their actions are often difficult to foresee. Nor do organizational leaders receive the immediate feedback that direct leaders do.

6-163. Still, as demonstrated by GEN Ridgway in Korea, the presence of commanders at the critical time and place boosts confidence and performance. Regardless of the type of organization they head, organizational leaders direct operations by setting the example, empowering their subordinates and organizations and supervising them appropriately. Organizational leaders concern themselves with combat power—how to build, maintain, and recover it. That includes developing systems that will provide the organization and the Army with its next generation of leaders. They also improve conditions by sustaining an ethical and supportive climate, building strong cohesive teams and organizations, and improving the processes that work within the organization.

6-164. Strategic leaders provide leadership at the highest levels of the Army. Their influence is even more indirect and the consequences of their actions more delayed than those of organizational leaders. Because of this, strategic leaders must develop additional skills based on those they’ve mastered as direct and organizational leaders. Chapter 7 discusses these and other aspects of strategic leadership.