CONTENTS

SECTION 1 ROLE OF

THE SNCO

INTRODUCTION

1.   This ACP is written for the newly appointed Sergeant undergoing training to perform that role. The rank of Sergeant is a Senior Non Commissioned Officer (SNCO) in the Air Training Corps. You will have earned the rank of Sergeant by demonstrating to your Commanding Officer that:

      a.   You have successfully performed in the role of Corporal in the ATC.

      b.   You have the abilityto perform in the role of.Sergeant

2.   It is stressed that promotion is given on ability and the existence of a suitable vacancy and not on the length of service or seniority.

WHAT A SNCO DOES

3.   To help you develop your skills and knowledge a job specification for the SNCO is given in ACO 20 A, ACTI 7, Annex B and is repeated here in Table 1.1. The SNCO job specification describes what a fully trained Sergeant should be capable of doing on a Squadron. As a SNCO you have been granted the authority to perform these tasks by your Commanding Officer. You should read this job specification now before continuing.

4.   You now have a more senior role in the "management team" of the Air Training Corps. Your role is not only to lead cadets but to organise and control JNCOs who report tp you. As JNCOs are leaders themselves they will expect more ability and professionalism from you as a Sergeant. Although you are a leader you are still a member of the NCO team and you are expected to support the other NCOs in your Squadron and Wing.

WHAT IS EXPECTED OF A SNCO

5.   A SNCO must be able to do everything a JNCO can do plus more. You are now in a position to help train cadets and also the JNCOs. You know from experience what being a Corporal is like and also hat things you disliked or found difficult. Use this experience to help make the life of the newly appointed Corporal, who filled your last position, easier in the first three months. It is in your own interests to make them a useful member of the team as quickly as possible.

6.   On every occasion you should ask yourself "is this the example a SNCO should be setting?" Remember you are now setting standards against which the JNCOs will be measuring themselves.

Job Title: **Senior NCO** (Sergeant)   **Responsible to:**   **FS,** CWO

Main Responsibilities and Activities performed by a fully trained SNCO	Knowledge, Skills and Attitudes Required
Perform the responsibilities and activities of a JNCO	As for JNCO
Manage and control a Flight of cadets under his/her direct supervision.	2.1 Be able to instruct second class cadets in drill to first class cadet examination standard. 2.2 Show competence in the command of a flight in foot drill. 2.3 Possess written and oral communication skills sufficient to be clearly understood.
Assist the Squadron staff in the management of the Squadron and the development of junior cadets and NCOs.	3.1 Be able to give and receive constructive feedback on performance. 3.2 Know and apply the principles of Functional Leadership.
Participate in the planning and organisation of Squadron activities.	4.1 Be able to apply problem solving techniques to specified problems. 4.2 Know and apply principles of appreciation, planning and briefing and control in execution. 4.3 Possess written and oral communication skills sufficient to be clearly understood.
Be able to recognise potential welfare problems.	5.1 Be aware of potential welfare problems and take the appropriate course of action.
Possess a general Service knowledge of the ATC.	6.1 Be aware of, and promote, cadet opportunities and the appropriate sources of information. 6.2 Have a knowledge of the structure of their own Wing and Region.

Table 1.1 - SNCO Job Specification

7.   Many cadets will ask you questions about ATC activities and the requirements for taking part in them. They will expect you to know the answer because of your experience and length of service in the ATC. The list of activities and the ages for taking part are published periodically in HQ AC Routine Orders. You should get together with the other JNCOs and carry out the task detailed in Task Box 1.1.

As an exercise generate a list of activities and their prerequisites from ACP 20A, it should include the following information:

a.   The activity Category (eg Sport, Flying, Camps, etc).

b.   The activity itself (eg AEF, AEG, IGT, BGT, etc)

      Minimum or maximum age

d.   Cadet classification.

e.   Cadet rank.

f.   Previous experience necessary.

g.   Length of service to date or remaining.

TASK BOX 1.1

WELFARE OF CADETS

8.   The SNCO Job Specification requires that you are able to recognise potential welfare problems and "exercise appropriate responsibility for the welfare of cadets". Cadets experience many pressures from life in general, occasionally one or more of these pressures may adversely affect a cadet. Sometimes circumstances are beyond the control of the cadet. Cadets may experience problems from many sources, for example:

a.   <u>Family</u>. A break up of family relationships or the illness of a close relative may well confuse or distract a cadet from their normal commitment to the ATC.

b.   <u>School</u>. School work and family pressures to succeed may prevent a cadet attending Parade Nights on a frequent basis. Giving the cadet a hard time about attendance will only put them off attending at all. This may have a negative affect because the ATC may be their only form of relaxation and they may be looking for support rather than more pressure.

c.   <u>Medical</u>. Cadets may suffer symptoms caused by such medical conditions as epilepsy, diabetes and asthma.

d.   Alcohol. There is a tendency for young people to drink alcohol on a regular basis. Beware, the influences of alcohol can reduce or remove inhibitions which may allow you to do things you will later regret (sometimes harmful or illegal). Alcohol is a depressant and taken in large and regular quantities can also physically damage the body.

e.   Bullying. Occasionally a cadet who is quiet may be picked on for "fun" whether at school or occasionally at the Squadron. Bullying need not be physical. Any verbal or psychological pressure that is regular and aimed at one person or a group is bullying. The most likely place for bullying to occur is at Summer Camp. This is where bullying can be the most damaging when a cadet may be away from home for the first time and not know who to talk to about the problem. It must be made perfectly clear, physical, verbal or psychological bullying, which includes "initiation ceremonies", are not allowed in the ATC. A SNCO's job is to ensure that it does not happen. Any occurrences of bullying should be reported to the Squadron Warrant Officer immediately.

f.   Drugs. There is always the temptation for young people to try new things and drugs, including solvent abuse, are among those temptations. Drug abuse initially seems harmless but the dangers from overdose, allergic reaction, addiction and potentially AIDS are real. It is unusual for a cadet in the ATC to use drugs because the lifestyles do not match each other. However, drugs are a serious problem in society and affect the health and lives of many users and their families. The slightest suspicion that cadets may be using drugs should be reported immediately to your Commanding Officer.

9.   There are many ways in which the above problems may show themselves. Some of the symptoms that may indicate the welfare problems listed above are listed below:

a.   Diminishing personal standards and poor attitude to discipline and authority.

b.   Uncharacteristic behaviour with exaggerated swings in mood and irritability.

c.   Unexplained absences from Parade Nights.

d.   Changes in health and sudden weight loss.

e.   Unusual aggression.

f.   Loss of appetite.

10.   The above symptoms can appear individually or together, some may indicate a morale problem as well as a welfare' problem. Your JNCOs will be monitoring the cadets more closely than you are able to. It is still your responsibility to make yourself familiar with the cadets welfare. IT IS NOT YOUR JOB TO INVESTIGATE AND SOLVE THE WELFARE PROBLEM, IT IS BEYOND YOUR ABILITIES TOP DO SO. If you believe a welfare problem exists then the most appropriate course of action for you is to voice your concerns to your Squadron Warrant Officer or any other uniformed member of staff. You should continue to monitor the cadet in question to see if any of the symptoms change for the better or worse.

LIMITS OF DISCIPLINARY AUTHORITY OF A SNCO

11.   The disciplinary authority of a SNCO is limited to extra duties. All the points made in ACP 48 about administering discipline should be remembered. Do not threaten punishments you cannot carry out. It is also your job as a SNCO to ensure that the Corporals reporting to you are administering discipline and punishments fairly.

12.   If serious or persistent breaches of discipline occur, you job is to collect the facts about the situation and report them to the Squadron Warrant Officer for consideration by the Staff.

SUMMARY

13.   As a Sergeant you have now taken on a more senior role in the "management team" of the ATC. You are taking on a training role as well as a management ask. You should set a good example and be aware of cadet opportunities within the Corps'.

14.   You must be more aware of the welfare of junior cadets and prevent such activities as bullying and "initiation" ceremonies. Be aware of the possible symptoms of a welfare problem and voice your concerns to a member of Staff if you believe a possible problem exists.

15.   Ensure you know the limits of your authority.

SECTION 2

DRILL INSTRUCTION AND INSPECTIONS

INTRODUCTION

1.   Discipline is founded on drill. Smartness on parade is not only a sign of good discipline, but is a basic factor in raising the standard of performance of all ATC activities. An SNCO in the ATC is required to be able to teach drill to cadets to the standard of the First Class Cadet examination.

AIM OF DRILL

2.   The aim of drill is to:

        a.   Produce a cadet who is proud, alert and obedient.

        b.   Provide the basis of team work.

        c.   Develop in NCOs the abilities and confidence to command and control a Squad.

3.   Whenever drill is taught or practised, those in command must stress its objective. It must never be used as a punishment, but always as a means of raising standards within a group of cadets. All who teach drill must know their subject thoroughly. This section is intended to assist NCOs who have to teach the First Class Cadet Drill Syllabus.

QUALITIES OF AN INSTRUCTOR

4.   Drill is by nature a precise and accurate subject which must be taught the same to every cadet. It is no use having some cadets doing drill one way and others another way. To teach it successfully you must have the following qualities:

        a.   <u>Patience</u>. Never lose your temper, but be firm.

        b.   <u>Consistency</u>. Set yourself and the squad a standard and do not let it fall.

        c.   <u>Enthusiasm</u>. You must encourage your squad or flight to learn and develop a desire to achieve the highest standards.

        d.   <u>Energy</u> Physical and mental energy are essential. You must have the drive to persuade the group to make that extra effort.

        e.   <u>Humanity</u>. Understand the squad's problems. Give praise, if appropriate, but do not become too familiar or strive to seek cheap popularity with your team members.

        f.   <u>Personality</u>. As a drill instructor you must impress your squad with your personality, without showing off. Personal integrity plays a great part in this because it plainly shows that you can be trusted, and trusting a leader is halfway to being willing to follow them.

TRAINING BY EXAMPLE

5.   Trainees imitate their instructors. It is by example that they will learn the most, so do not become a "do as I say not as I do" instructor. If you do not take drill seriously neither will your cadets, to set a good example you should:

   a.   Stand to attention when drilling a squad or flight. This increases your own bearing and sets a standard for the cadets.

   b.   March as you wish the Squad to march. Do not amble onto the parade ground.

   c.   Demonstrate drill movements with accuracy and enthusiasm.

   d.   Never use bad language or sarcasm.

SMARTNESS

6.   NCOs should always remember that smartness in their personal turnout is essential. It is necessary that an NCOs appearance should be a credit to the ATC and an example to the cadets at al times. Carelessness in the dress standards suggests an unorganised mind and will be copied by the cadets.

METHOD OF INSTRUCTION

7.   The full value of drill depends on the way in which it is carried out and the instructor is to insist upon:

   a.   The immediate obedience to his orders.

   b.   The smartness, cleanliness and correct dress of each cadet. During drill periods any faults in appearance must be corrected and never ignored.

   c.   High concentration and steadiness of each cadet.

   d.   Total silence during parade.

SEQUENCE OF INSTRUCTION

8.   The following sequence should be adopted when instructing a squad or individual.

   a.   First consider the comfort of the squad, do not have them looking into the sun or facing a strong wind.

   b.   The exercise to be performed should be clearly stated.

   c.   The instructor should **demonstrate** the movement completely, calling out the timing at the same time.

   d.   The instructor is to break the movement into stages if possible. Explain each stage by numbers or in slow time stressing the important details.

e.	The trainees are to **imitate and practice** the exercise by numbers or in slow time, individual faults are to be corrected by the instructor.

f.	The instructor is to demonstrate and explain the complete movement once more, stressing the timing of the movement.

g.	The squad is to imitate and practise the movement, judging the timing themselves until the correct standard is achieved.

9.	During the initial stages of instruction a suitable cadet should be chosen to call out the timings to all the drill movements. This will ensure that every member of the squad is made firmly aware of the correct timing of the movement and the cadets will learn to act together as a squad.

TEACHING BY NUMBERS

10.	The correct sequence of commands when teaching by numbers is:

a.	The word of command of the movement.

b.	The words "by numbers".

c.	The cautionary word "Squad" or "Flight".

d.	The executive command "one", "two", etc.

e.	For example, "Right Turn, By Numbers, Squad, One".

EXAMPLE SEQUENCE OF INSTRUCTION

11.	Preliminaries. The squad will be at attention in front of you. Name the movement to be taught as follows:

"I am now going to teach you the About Turn at the Halt.

Watch my demonstration.

Listen to my explanation and pay attention.

Squad "Stand at Ease"

Can you all hear me?

Can you all see me? If not move to a position within the Squad where you can".

12.	Demonstration. Demonstrate the movement by giving yourself the orders and calling out the timing. Simplify the movement by demonstrating by numbers for stationary drill or in slow time for marching drill movements.

"Instructor, about-turn, one-pause-two.

To simplify the movement I will break it down by numbers explaining each part as I go along.

(OR To simplify each movement I will demonstrate it in slow time explaining each part as I go along).

About turn, By numbers, Instructor, One.

On the command one, a turn is made through 180 degrees on the heel of the right foot and the toe of the left foot, etc.

By numbers, Instructor, Two.

Bend the left knee and bring it forward to the position or attention.

Are there any questions?

You will now practise that movement by numbers by calling out the numbers.

Cover off.

Squad attention.

About Turn, By numbers, Squad, One.

By numbers, Squad, Two".

13.   Move around the squad smartly, checking the execution of the movements and correcting mistakes.

"Squad, stand-at-ease.

I will now demonstrate the complete movement, judging and calling out the timing.

Instructor, About-turn, One-pause-two".

14.   Explain that a pause equal to one pace in quick time is to be observed between the first and second part of the movement.

"Any questions?

Cover off.

You will now practice that movement calling out and judging the timing".

15.   Carry out the movement until you are satisfied that it is being correctly performed.

16.   For a movement on the march after the initial demonstration the following procedure is to be followed:

"To simplify that movement I will demonstrate it in a slower time explaining each part as I go along.

The word of command Halt is given when the left heel strikes the ground (adopt position).

A further pace is taken, in the normal time with the right foot and the arms are swung, etc".

17.   Having demonstrated in full.

"The complete timing for that movement is one, one-two.

Any Questions?

Squad-attention

You will now practise that movement calling out and judging the timing".

18.   Practise the squad, correcting any mistakes that arise and ask for any questions at the end.

SUMMARY OF IMPORTANT POINTS

19   When taking or teaching drill:

    a.   DO:

        (1)   Know your subject.

        (2)   Be seen and be heard.

        (3)   Be conscious of your own bearing.

        (4)   Pronounce your words of command clearly.

        (5)   Keep control, check and correct mistakes.

        (6)   encourage and praise, but be firm with mistakes.

        (7)   Remember, drill is difficult and artificial.

    b.   DO NOT:

        (1)   Threaten, embarrass or ridicule.

        (2)   Demonstrate incorrect drill movements.

        (3)   Make mistakes! If you do, don't be afraid to admit it.

INSPECTION OF A SQUAD

20.   A SNCO must check that the standard of cadets' uniform and turnout is acceptable and if not identify the errors to the cadet. But remember, YOU CANNOT CRITICISE CADETS IF YOUR OWN TURNOUT IS NOT PERFECT. An inspection is carried out at the "Open-order" and starts at the front rank, right flank. All cadets must be at "Attention" at the start of the inspection. If the inspection is likely to take a long time, or it is a big squad, it is acceptable to stand the centre and rear ranks at ease. Each rank is inspected first from the front and ten from the rear.

21.   If the centre and rank ranks have been stood at ease each should be brought to attention before the previous rank is stood at ease. If a cadet is told to adjust their uniform while on parade they must technically "fall out" by placing their right foot 12 inches to the rear of their left *foe**. Having made the necessary adjustments they are to resume the position of attention.

ITEMS TO BE NOTED DURING INSPECTION OF PERSONNEL

22.   In general the uniform should be correctly fitting, of official pattern, in good repair and correctly worn. The style of the uniform is not to be altered by ironing in creases or pleats in any way. No unofficial emblems or badges are to be worn. Uniform should be inspected from the head to the feed as follows:

        a.   Beret. The beret is to be clean and is to be worn so that the band is horizontally round the head and 2.5 cm (one inch) above the eyebrows. Loose material is to be drawn to the right so that the badge is clearly displayed in a position vertically above the left eye. The band around the beret should not be frayed and any loose adjustment chord at the rear should be tucked into the band.

        b.   Hair. The hair of the head is to be kept well cut and trimmed. Female cadet's hair is to be arranged so as not to fall below the bottom edge of the back of the shirt collar or show below the front of the beret. It is to be retained by a hair grip that is black or the same colour as the hair.

        c.   Shaving. Male cadets are to be properly shaved. Beards or whiskers are not to be worn except on approved medical or religious grounds. If a moustache is worn the upper lip is to be entirely unshaven and the moustache trimmed neatly for length. Exaggerated or "handlebar" whiskers are not to be permitted.

        d.   Cleanliness. The face, ears, neck, hands and fingernails are to be clean. Female cadets should not wear excessive make up.

        e.   Shirt. The shirt should be in a good state of repair, with no loose threads or missing buttons. Generally creases should only be ironed into shirts where they naturally occur due to their pattern. Working blue shirt collars are to be ironed flat at the front and worn with the top button undone and the collar outside the jersey. For Wedgwood blue shirts the collar is to be ironed and inside the jersey if worn, the shirt should be free from starch marks. Wedgwood blue shirts should only be worn on ceremonial occasions.

        f   Tie. The tie should be worn with the Wedgwood blue shirt only. It should be tied with a Windsor knot and not tucked into the shirt   When a tie is worn the shirt sleeves should be down.

g.   Jersey. The jersey should be lightly ironed and pulled down and not folded over at the waist. The shoulder and elbow patches should not be ironed to the extent that the wood pattern below shows through. The jersey should be free of snags and holes and of the correct length in arms and body. The sleeves should be folded over at the ends. The Staff Cadet Lanyard and Button should be correctly fitted. The black button should be securely attached with the crown uppermost and the eagle horizontal.

h.   Brassard. The Brassard should be clean. Creases should not be ironed into the Brassard at any position. All badges should be correctly positioned and sewn on neatly without any loose threads or lifting edges. In shirt sleeve order the bottom of the Brassard should be worn outside the rolled up shirt sleeve.

i.   Trousers. Trousers should be of the correct length, well pressed with creases to the front and rear. The edges of pockets should not be frayed and there should not be any scorch marks.

j.   Skirts. Skirts should be in good repair, neatly pressed and of the correct length.

k.   Belts. Only the correct belts should be worn. The finish of the metal fittings should not be modified. If natural metal they should be polished. Stable belts are not to be worn on parade and on other occasions not over the jersey.

1.   Trinkets and Jewellery. No trinkets, ear-rings or unauthorised badges are to be visible. Plain wedding rings may be worn and female cadets may wear plain gold stud sleeper ear-rings when in uniform (but not on parade). Male cadets are not to wear ear-rings at any time. Watches may be worn providing they are not visible, but make sure they are not programmed to go "beep" in the middle of a parade!

m.   Socks and Tights. Socks should be black and in good repair. Tights should be the correct colour and seamless, they should not have any snags or ladders.

n.   Footwear. Footwear should be in good repair and highly polished, all over. Particular attention should be paid to where the sole joins the uppers and around the heel. Laces should be straight across and neatly fastened.

SUMMARY

23.   Cadets will imitate your dress and drill standards. To be a good drill instructor and to set standards for cadets you need to set a good example yourself. Know the rules and standards and obey them yourself.

SECTION 3

LEADERSHIP

INTRODUCTION

1.   Leadership plays a major part in the job of an NCO. In industry the word manger is often substituted for leader. As an SNCO you are beginning to take on the role of a manager as well as a leader. This section will summarise the differences between the leadership and management roles.

MANAGEMENT VERSUS LEADERSHIP

2.   The difference between management and leadership has been the source of much debate during the 20th century.   The definition of Leadership given in ACP 48 was:

> "To influence the thoughts and behaviour of others in a deliberate direction in order to achieve a desired objective"

3.   This is a good definition which stresses the influencing of others to achieve a task. By definition all leaders, at every level, must have followers. A JNCO leads cadets to achieve tasks, an SNCO must be capable of leading not only cadets but also JNCOs. To lead junior leaders requires more than just the ability to influence their behaviour. It requires the ability to look further ahead to plan and to co-ordinate future activities.

4.   In broad terms leadership is part of being a manager. Leadership implies the interaction with and influencing of others. There are many tasks a manager must perform to allow him to lead and inspire others. A list of the management roles would probably be the same length as the list of qualities a leader must have! In addition to the Task, Team and Individual Needs from the Functional Leadership model, here are a few key management roles.

   a.   Information Gatherer. Know what is going on and what should be happening.

   b.   Decision Maker. React to the information available and make decisions as to what needs to be done that isn't being done.

   c.   Resource Allocater. Assess who is doing what and who is free to do any tasks that need doing.

   d.   Task Integrator. Make sure that tasks being performed by different groups are working towards a common goal and not in opposite directions.

   e.   Disturbance Handler. If something unexpected happens then sort out the chaos that results and get things running smoothly again.

Areas of Need			Appropriate Functions	Examples	References
T A S K	1		Appreciating the situation.	Deciding the aim or mission.	ACP 48 Sect 7 ACP 49 Sects 5 & 6
			Making and adjusting a plan.	Assessing priorities and resources. Seeking specialist advice. Making decisions.	ACP 48 Sect 7 ACP 49Sect 5
			Allocating responsibilities, work and resources	Allocating tasks and resources. Delegating responsibilities	ACP 48 Sect 7 ACP 49 Sect 5
			Control of Quality, tempo and performance.	Checking standards. Influencing Tempo. Measuring achievements against plan.	ACP 48 Sect 7 ACP 49 Sect 5
			Communications	informing. Checking understanding.	ACP 49 Sect 9
			Setting and maintaining standards.	Setting a personal example. Correcting faults.	ACP 48 Sect 7 ACP 49Sect 5
	T E A M		Instilling and Maintaining Discipline.	Insisting on obedience and punishing.	ACP 48 Sect 2
			Building team spirit.	Bringing group into the decision making. Encouraging participation and suggestions.	ACP 49 Sect 8
		I N D I V I D U A L	Motivating, praising and giving a sense of purpose.	Knowing names, assessing morale, reinforcing success.	ACP 49 Sects 7 & 9
			Giving status	Developing potential leaders. Appointing sub-leaders. Rewarding effort publicly.	ACP 49 Sect 8
			Training the group and individuals.	Encouraging, educating and training. Practising tasks	ACP 49 Sects 4 & 9
			Recognising and using individual abilities.	Assessing ability. Giving the right level of responsibility and delegating.	ACP 49 Sects 4 & 9
			Attending to personal problems.	Checking living conditions. Dealing quickly with welfare problems.	ACP 48 Sect 1 ACP 49 Sects 1 & 7

Table 3.1- The Functions Appropriate to the Task, Team and Individual Needs

5.   Generally, the more senior the manager the further ahead they have to look to plan activities. A JNCO is interested in the hear and now, looking ahead probably no more than an hour. A SNCO is interested in monitoring what is happening now but is also thinking ahead to what happens when the JNCO finishes their current tasks. A CWO may well be looking ahead one or two Parade Nights as well as monitoring what the SNCOs are doing.

A DETAILED LOOK AT THE FUNCTIONAL LEADERSHIP MODEL

Introduction

6.   The Functional Leadership Model requires that a leader be "aware of the Task, Team Maintenance and Individual Needs of their group and have the knowledge, skill and attitudes to respond to those needs in accordance with the priorities of the situation". This section will show you how the various topics within ACP 48 and ACP 49 relate to the Task, Team Maintenance and Individual Needs.

Appropriate Leadership Functions

7.   Table 3.1 gives examples of each of the Functional Needs and where you can find a detailed discussion on each topic.

SUMMARY

8.   The management role requires more than just leadership ability. An SNCO is required to manage junior NCOs and to look further ahead and plan tasks accordingly. The Functional Leadership Model requires you to use all the skills identified in ACP 48 and ACP 49.

SECTION 4

LEADERSHIP STYLES

INTRODUCTION

1.   The style which a leader uses will depend on the situation, the task and the team being led. A leadership style appropriate to an adventure training situation might not suit the average parade night. Similarly you would not expect to lead a group of Staff Cadets in the same way as you would a group of Second Class Cadets.

2.   The SNCO also has one significant difference to the Corporal, that is they have junior leaders working for them. To be an effective Sergeant you must learn to use these Corporals by delegating tasks to them. This section describes how you should adjust your leadership style according to the task and the team and also how to delegate tasks so as to achieve more.

TASK AND SOCIAL SPECIALIST ROLES

3.   A leader has to perform two roles to meet the task, team and individual needs of the Functional Leadership Model. These roles are the Social Specialist who uses two way inter personal relationships to motivate individual and keep the group together, and the Task Specialist who uses one way communication and an autocratic leadership style to achieve tasks.

4.   Your leadership style will depend on:

    a.   The amount of direction (task behaviour) a leader gives.

    b.   The amount of inter-personal support (social behaviour) a leader gives.

    c.   The level of experience, or "performance" of the group in accomplishing the task that has to be done.
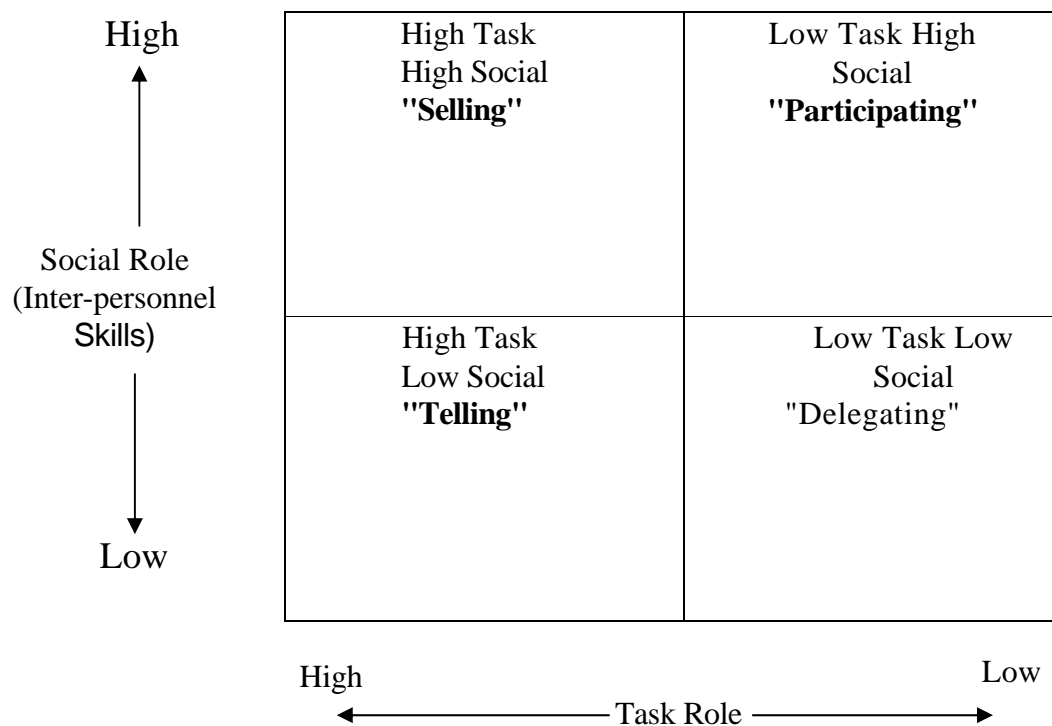
THE LEADERSHIP STYLES

5   Task behaviour by the leader is aimed at achieving the task through the use of their superior skills and knowledge and plenty of detailed direction as to what is required to be done. Task behaviour is aimed at the Task Needs of the Functional Leadership Model

6.   Social behaviour is aimed at providing emotional support to increase confidence and build relationships to keep individuals happy and bind the team together. Social behaviour supports the Team and Individual Needs of the Functional Leadership Model.

7.   There are four leadership styles that can be achieved by using combinations of task and social behaviour. These are described in Table 4.1, and are shown in diagrammatic form in Figure 4.1.

8.   There is no best style of leadership and, as already stated, the choice of style will depend on the task to be performed and the ability and willingness of the team to do the task, as defined by what we shall call their performance level.

Style	Description
High Task **Low social**	This is referred to as the "telling" style because it is characterised by oneway communication in which the leader defines the roles of followers and tells them what, how, when and where to do the various tasks. For example "This is what we have to do , this is how we are going to do it , does anyone not understand?
High Task **High social**	This is referred to as the "selling" style because most of the direction is still provided by the leader. Though the leader also attempts through two-way communication and social skills to get the followers to "buy-in" to the leaders decisions.
	For example "This is what we have to do.........., this is how I suggest we do it, because............, any questions?
Low Task **High social**	This is the "participating" style because the leader and followers now share in decision making through two-way communication and morale support from the leader since the followers have the ability and knowledge to do the task. For example "This is what we have to do............, how do you suggest we tackle it .... ?, good idea, that is how we will do it........., any questions'?
Low **Task** **Low social**	Known as the "delegating" style since it involves letting followers "run their own show". The leader delegates since the followers are both willing and able to do the task and will take on the responsibility for directing their own behaviour. For example "This is what has to be done , please do it for me, any questions?"

Table 4.1 - Definitions of the Four Leadership Styles.

LEVEL OF PERFORMANCE

9.   Leaders have to use their teams to achieve a task that can't be done by an individual. The ability of a group to perform a task will depend on their skills or relevant knowledge and their willingness to do it. In this case willingness means the self-confidence and motivation necessary to complete a given task. For example, a group of cadets might be highly motivated to achieve a task but be unwilling to tackle it without close supervision and direction. A team's ability and willingness will vary according to how much experience the team have of doing a given task. This is called the performance level of the team and individuals.

High	High Task High Social **"Selling"**	Low Task High Social **"Participating"**
Social Role (Inter-personnel Skills)	High Task Low Social **"Telling"**	Low Task Low Social "Delegating"
Low		

High   Low

◄─────── Task Role ───────►

(Providing Direction) Figure

4.1 - Diagrammatic Representation of the Four Leadership Styles

10.	for example if a person or tea is well able to do a particular task and is willing to do it then their performance level is said to be high. However, if they are unable and unwilling to do the same task then their performance is said to be low. The performance level of a person or team is measured on their ability and willingness to do a specific task and the performance level will, therefore, vary from task to task.

11.	For the purposes of choosing a leadership style we shall define four overlapping levels of performance as given in Table 4.2.

Level of Performance	Level of Ability and Willingness
Low	Follower is completely unwilling to do a task OR. Follower is unable to do the task. Tasks are frequently not done or not completed. Follower complains when given a task.

Level of Performance	Level of Ability and Willingness
Medium Low	Follower has some ability. Follower knows enough to ask intelligent questions but does not know enough to do job unaided. Follower has sufficient willingness to ask questions, wants to learn.
Medium High	Follower can do the job but lacks self confidence to do it unsupervised. Unwilling to take responsibility. Says things like "I've done the job but I'd like you to check it". If asked about the task is quite able to explain it as well as perform it.
High	Follower can do the job and is happy to do it and take on the responsibility. As a leader you can rely on the job being done properly.

Table 4.2 - A Definition of the Performance Levels of Follower(s)

STYLE OF LEADER VERSUS PERFORMANCE LEVEL OF FOLLOWERS

12.   We have defined four styles of leadership and four levels of performance. What we need to do now is match the leadership style appropriate to the performance level of the followers:

   a.   Low Performance Followers. A group with a low performance level is unable and/or unwilling to do the task. In this situation the leader needs to do a lot of directing and cannot afford to get too involved with the team's relationships, the task has to get done. The most appropriate style for the low performance level is, therefore, the "Telling" style (high task, low social). The term "low relationship" does not mean unpleasant or unfriendly, it means a low attention to the Team and Individual Needs.

   b.   Medium to Low Performance Followers. This group has some ability and is able and willing to ask intelligent questions. It is still necessary for the leader to give high task direction but more time can be spent building the confidence of the team. This style is the "Selling" style (high task, high social). The leader is paying more attention to the team and individual needs by training, praising and building team spirit.

    c.   <u>Medium to High Performance Followers</u>. This type of group can do the job but lacks confidence to do it unsupervised. It is not necessary for the leader to give detailed task direction, in fact this may cause resentment. However, the team needs to be given confidence that what they are doing is correct. This requires a leadership style based on "participation" (low task, high social). Here the leader is concentrating on building the team's confidence by praising, recognising individual's ability and giving status.

    d.   <u>High Performance Followers</u>. A high performance level group is well able to do a task and more than willing to accept the responsibility for doing it. The leader should not have to do any more than tell the group to do the task. This is the "Delegating" style (low task, low social) where the leader can rely on a team to get on with the job unsupervised.

13. , We can summarise this discussion by adding a scale of performance level to the leadership style diagram which shows which style you should use for each performance level as in Figure 4.2. As the performance level increases to the right simply follow the bell shaped curve and the quadrant you are in at the time gives you the leadership style you should use.

CHANGES IN A TEAMS PERFORMANCE LEVEL

14.   If a team and their leader have been working together for some time then their performance level should increase as they gain more ability and confidence in doing a variety of tasks. It follows then that leaders should change their leadership style from Telling to Selling by increasing social support. This should not be done too quickly or the team might think the leader is a soft touch.

15   Generally a team's performance level will only move one level at a time, but it can increase or decrease. For example a team with medium low performance level will either move to a low or medium high performance level. The team will not skip the medium high performance level to go straight to a high performance level. Therefore, your leadership style must follow their performance level.

16.   Part of your job as a SNCO is to train the junior cadets and Corporals below you to a higher performance level. Remember, that the same team may have a high performance level. Remember that the same team may have a high performance level while doing one particular task but a low performance level when tackling a task they have never done before.
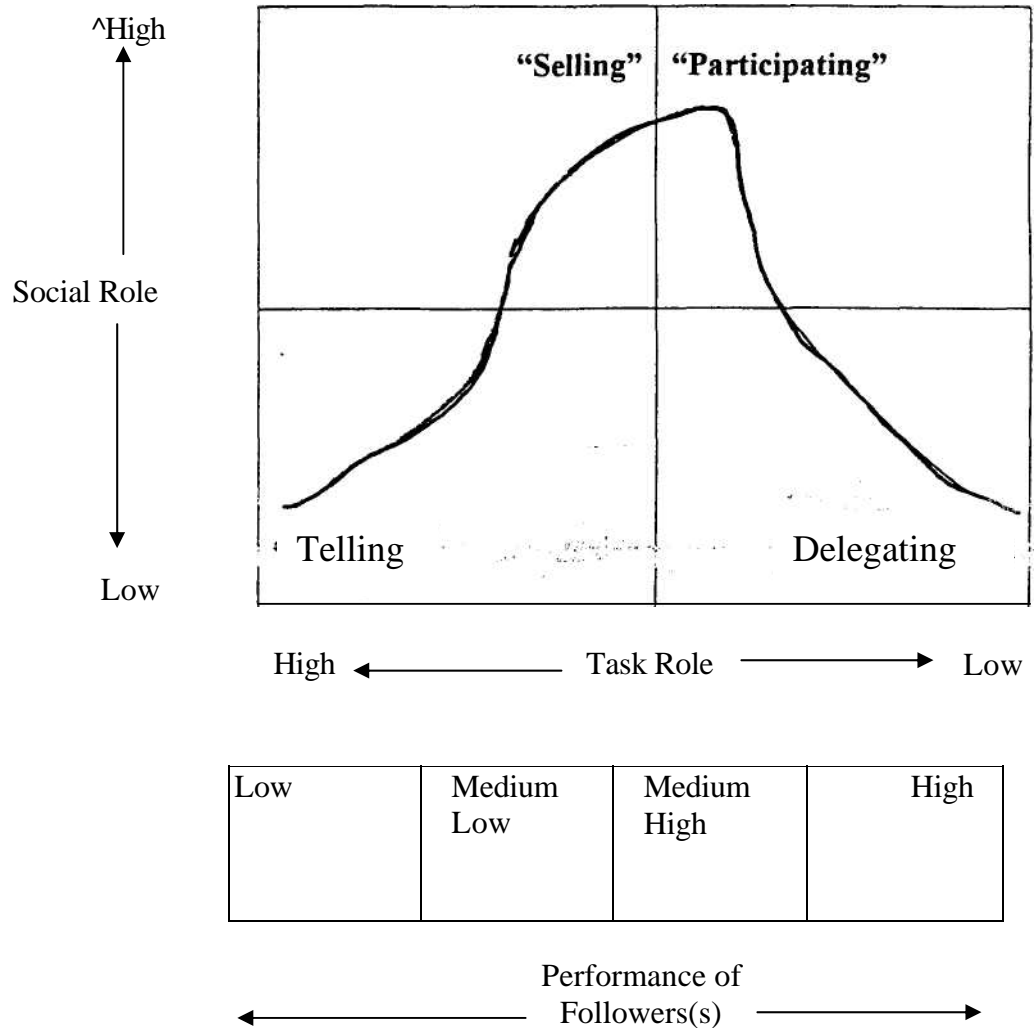
```
        ^High                    "Selling"  "Participating"


    Social Role

                                 Telling              Delegating
        Low

      High  ←——————— Task Role ———————→ Low
```

Low	Medium Low	Medium High	High

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              Performance of
              Followers(s)
    ←————————————————————→
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Figure 4.2 - Selecting the Leadership Style according to the Followers Performance Level

DEVELOPING A TEAM

17.   As an SNCO you must know the abilities of the team and individuals you are responsible for. With low performance followers start with a high task style (telling), gradually rewarding increased ability and willingness with an increasing social support. Once you reach the selling stage you can start to reduce the task direction and concentrate more on building team spirit through a participative style until gradually you are merely giving a check on their performance. Eventually you will be able to delegate a task to the team who will be able to do it without supervision. You will have fulfilled your role in training the team and they now get their satisfaction from your confidence in leaving them to get on with the task unsupervised.

DELEGATION

18.   A newly appointed Corporal will probably welcome some task direction whereas an experienced Corporal is likely to resent too much interference. Delegation, the final leadership style, is usually the most difficult for SNCOs to do. Delegation is the process by which SNCOs give JNCOs the authority and responsibility to carry out tasks on their behalf. However, SNCOs are still accountable for the results of the tasks. Delegation is different ,from the allocation of trivial tasks and it does not mean the passing of your responsibility and accountability to someone else. To delegate successfully you must have confidence in the team or individual's ability and willingness to do the job unsupervised.

19.   As a SNCO you will have to delegate many routine tasks to remain effective and to do your own job successfully. The act of delegating tasks to JNCOs and senior cadets contributes to the individual needs of the Functional Leadership Model. One of the problems of delegation is the consistency of the completed task. It is important, therefore, to brief the group or individual on the standards required. If you have chosen correctly the individual should know what needs to be done.

20.   One significant mistake in delegation is to expect the task to be done exactly the way you would do it. This can lead to the SNCO continually checking, criticising and undermining the confidence and initiative of the team or individual.

21.   To delegate successfully you must be:

    a.   Confident of the team or individuals ability and willingness to do the job.

    b.   Be fair as to allocation of tasks considering the recipients other workloads.

    c.   Have patience to accept and correct errors and misunderstandings.

    d.   Be approachable, remember questions are easier to handle than mistakes.

22.   Not every task can be delegated successfully. A Task needs to have several characteristics before you can delegate it. These can be summarised by the abbreviation SMART, which is described in detail below:

    a.   Specific. It is no good giving a vague task that has no definite end to it. Be specific in what the task is. Remember the Mission Statement described in Briefing.

    b.   Measurable. A task is measurable if standards can be set and measured. A delegated task is complete when the specific task has been performed to the correct standards.

    c.   Achievable. The task must be capable of being performed by the group delegated to do it. Giving unachievable tasks is unfair and lowers morale.

    d.   Relevant. Make sure the task is relevant to the group to whom you are giving it. Giving irrelevant tasks is demotivating to the group.

    e.   Time Related. There must be a definite time by which the task must be complete. Open ended tasks that go on forever are difficult to measure. A group must be capable of finishing a task in a reasonable time to gain a sense of achievement.

SUMMARY

23.   To be an effective leader and get the most out our your follower(s) you must select the appropriate leadership style according to the follower(s) performance level. To do this you must know your follower(s) strengths and weaknesses.

.24.   As a SNCO you are responsible for training teams to be more effective. To do this you will have to learn to modify your style as the follower(s) become more experienced and confident at the tasks being performed.

25.   It is always difficult to rely on others to do a job you can do well yourself. However, as you become more senior you cannot hope to do every task that needs to. be done yourself, you must train your followers and learn to delegate tasks effectively. Use the SMART abbreviation to remind yourself about which tasks you can sensibly delegate.

SECTION 5

GETTING THINGS DONE

INTRODUCTION

1.   Your success as a leader lies not only in your leadership skills but also in your abilities to appreciate a task, plan a solution to your team and successfully execute the plan while continually evaluating its success in meeting the original objectives.

2.   This section is going to look at getting things done in more detail. The first three steps to getting things done is to appreciate the problem, plan a solution and brief your team on the execution of the plan.

APPRECIATING THE PROBLEM

3.   This is sometimes difficult to do, especially if the problem is not clear. It is possible to misunderstand the problem and try and solve the symptoms rather than the problem itself. For someone who can't sleep because of toothache this is like taking sleeping pills to make you sleep rather than curing the toothache.

4.   Problem solving techniques for complex problems will be discussed in Section 8. For the moment it is assumed that the problem or task is clear. The appreciation of the problem follows the following steps"

    a.   <u>Aim</u>. First study the whole brief; you must be aware of all the information available. Take your time and decide clearly in your own mind what you have to do.

    b.   <u>Urgency</u>. Is there anything in the brief that must be done immediately. You must consider these tasks and brief your team to do these tasks before continuing with your overall appreciation of the problem.

    c   <u>Factors</u>. What factors will affect how you perform the task. Decide on the essential factors that must, be met or taken into account. Then, list the desirable factors that should be met if the plan and resources permit. Next, decide on what factors are irrelevant and can be ignored.

    d.   <u>Limitations</u>. Decide what limitations exist, that is, what can or can't be done. These come in three types. The first are imposed constraints that are part of the problem or given in the brief. The second are natural limitations like physical strength or the simple mechanics of a situation. The third constraints are those that affect the safety of you and your team. As a SNCO you will sometimes have to decide on what can be done safely and this will affect your possible solutions to the task.

    e.   <u>Specialists</u>   Ask yourself if you have all the skills and knowledge needed to develop a solution. If you have not, then ask the team if anyone has done the type of task before. To ensure you keep control of the team take the specialist to one side and listen to their views. Once you have the information, incorporate it in your pian. If you do not do this there is always the danger that the specialist will take control of the group, as they have ail the answers.

f.   Resources. What equipment and people are available to do the task. If possible check your equipment and reconnoitre the area in which the exercise will occur. Remember, you do not have to use all the equipment or all of your team unless the brief says so. If you don't need all your team move the unneeded team members away, but ensure you appoint a sub-leader to keep them quiet and under control. The major resource that is often forgotten is time, once used it cannot be regained.

g.   Priorities. You must decide if the tasks must be done in particular order. This may be necessary for practical reasons or as part of the brief to complete the task successfully. Again, do not forget any priorities imposed for reasons of safety.

PLANNING

5.   Having ordered all the information and your thoughts on the problem the next step is to plan a solution. The first mistake that is frequently made is to adopt the first idea that

comes to your mind. Don't let this happen, take the following steps:

a.   List the Possible Solutions. Try to think of several possible solutions. Test each solution by running through each one in your mind, step by step, assessing its suitability and evaluate its feasibility. Try and assess what problems might arise and how you might overcome them if they do.

b.   Select the Best Solution. The best solution will be one that is practical and:

(1)   Fulfils all the essential requirements of the task.

(2)   Fulfils all or most of the desirable requirements of the task.

(3)   Caters for unforeseen contingencies and is capable of being modified.

(4)   Uses the resources efficiently.

c.   Formulate your Plan in Detail. Use the acronym of SMEAC to order your thoughts and create your plan in detail. This will make it easier to brief later. All the sub-tasks that have to be done should be listed in the order they need to be done. If the task is complex make sure the equipment available for each task is clearly defined. Make sure that you allocate specific tasks or responsibilities to your team members. The usual main responsibilities you should consider are:

(1)   Your Deputy. The second in command (or 2IC) can be used to lead any sub-tasks hat are part of your plan or to take over the command if you are injured. Make sure your 2IC knows and understands your plan in detail.

(2)   A Timekeeper. Make sure someone is detailed to give you regular time checks. Before you choose someone make sure they have a suitable watch!

(3)   IC Standards. You will need someone to stand back from the activity and prevent the team braking any of the limitations defined in the brief.

(4)   Navigator and 2IC. If appropriate assign a. navigator and a 2IC to perform and check the navigation.

BRIEFING

6.   The brief to your team should follow the SMEAC format. Remember that no matter how good your plan is, if your team don't understand it, then it will fail. The description of the SMEAC briefing process in ACP 48 Section 7 is still valid though as a SNCO you will be expected to give a more structured "Execution" phase an include more detail. According to the complexity of the task the Execution section of the SMEAC brief can be expanded as follows:

      a.   <u>General Execution</u>. This starts with a general description of the overall plan. It continues with the assignment of responsibilities and tasks to individuals or subgroups within the team. Next is any co-ordinating instructions which ensures the activities of the whole team come together at the right place and time. This should include timings, assembly areas and rendezvous points Finally the limitations associated with the exercise should be listed. If possible build a simple model using earth, sticks and stones to show how your plan is to be implemented.

      b.   <u>Administration and Logistics</u>. This section should include any equipment available for the exercise and any personal kit required such as water bottles, waterproof clothing and safety equipment. For a long exercise the brief might include details about feeding arrangements, medical facilities and safety arrangements. If the overall team is to be split up it is important to detail who is in which sub-group.

      c.   <u>Command and Signals</u>. It is important in any complex exercise for the tarns to know where the HQ location is and how to contact it routinely and in an emergency. This section of the brief should detail any pre-arranged signals, passwords and for night exercises, the "end-ex" signal. If the exercise involves radios ensure the frequencies, channels and call signs are given to the team.

<u>SUMMARY</u>

7.   A summary o the detailed Appreciation, Planning and briefing process is given in Table 5.1.

A P P R ' E C I A T I O N	AIM	Study the WHOLE brief. What have I got to do?	DEFINE THE PROBLEM
	URGENCY	Must I act immediately?	
	FACTORS	What factors will affect the task/ Essential, desirable, irrelevant.	
	LIMITATIONS	What limitations exist? What constraints have been imposed?	GATHER RELEVANT INFORMATION
	SPECIALISTS	Do I need expert advice?	
	RECOURCES	What people and materials are available	
	PRIORITIES	Must things be done in a particular order?	
P L A N N I N G	SOLUTIONS	List all possible solutions. Test the possible solutions.	IDENTIFY TEST SELECT SOLUTIONS
	BEST SOLUTION	Meets all essential factors. Meets all or most of desirable factors. Caters for foreseeable problems. Uses the resources efficiently.	
	FORMULATE	Plan in detail. Allocate tasks and responsibilities.	PLAN BRIEF SOLUTION
B R I E F I N G	SITUATION	What is the overall picture? How much is relevant now?	
	MISSION	Short, sharp and singular.	
	EXECUTION Administration and Logistics Command and Signals	What is the plan? What are the resources? What are the limitations and standards? How is the plan achieved? Who does what?	
	ANY QUESTIONS	Answer all questions. Do not ridicule	
	CHECK UNDERSTANDING	Pertinent and revealing questions on the main points of the brief. Pose, pause, pounce.	

Table 5.1 - A Detailed Appreciation, Planning and Briefing Process

SECTION 6

PROBLEM SOLVING TECHNIQUES

INTRODUCTION

1.   The appreciation of a simple problem and the planning of its solution is fairly straightforward. Usually the problem is obvious and easy to understand. This is usually referred to as a "hard" problem, not because it is difficult but because it has hard facts to define it. The opposite type of problem is called "soft" because there are no obvious facts and it is not clear what the problem is or what the solution is. Problem solving techniques can be used to solve complex problems whether they are hard or soft.

THE PROBLEM SOLVING PROCESS

2.   There are four phases to the problem solving process as shown in Figures 6.1. Each phase is described below, techniques that can be used in each phase are described later.

        a.   Problem Analysis and Re-definition. With complex problems it is not always obvious what the problem is. It is easy to start solving the symptoms of the problem rather than the problem itself. This phase of the process is designed to gather as much information as possible about the problem. The end result of this phase is a definition of the real problem that has to be solved.

        b.   Idea Generation. Once the problem is defined it is necessary to generate ideas for possible solutions. Ready-made solutions may exist or simple adaptations of existing solutions may be possible. However, complex problems sometimes need innovative solutions. The idea generation techniques are designed to produce many possible solutions to form the output from this phase.

        c.   Idea Evaluation and Selection. The problem with generating many ideas is that you then have to evaluate which is the best one and select the final solution.

        d.   Implementation. Having selected the best solution the implementation phase is identical to the procedure described in "Getting Things Done". In summary tat is make a detailed plan, brief the team, execute the plan and evaluate its success.

3.   There are many hundreds of techniques that are: quick, long, easy, complex, for groups, for individuals, based on free association or forced relationships. The techniques described below are frequently used in problem solving and variations to each can be found.

Gather Information About problem

Focus on real problem

Generate Many Possible solutions

Evaluate And select Best solution

Implement Best solution

Problem Analysis and Redefinition Stage

Idea Generation Stage

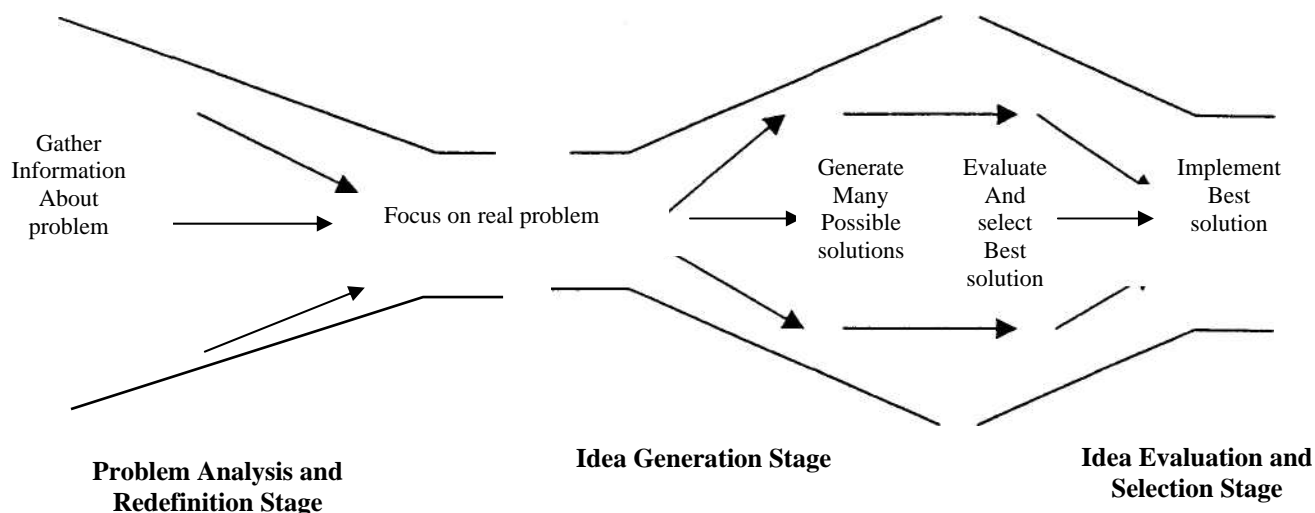**Idea Evaluation and Selection Stage**

Figure 6.1 - The Problem Solving Process

TECHNIQUES FOR PROBLEM ANALYSIS

4.   This phase needs to gather information about a given problem. A simple technique is described which can be used by an individual or as a team.

5.   Five W's and H. This is a variation on the Who, What, When, Where, Why and How questions used by journalists to get all the information they need for a story. In the same way it can be used to gather information about a problem. There are five steps to the technique.

       a.   State the problem using the expression "In what ways might ....?" (IWWM ...... ?). An example might be: "IWWM we motivate cadets to attend more events?"

       b.   Write down separate lists of Who? What? When? Where? Why? and How questions relevant to the problem as stated above. Examples of such questions might be:

              (1)   Who doesn't attend all events.

              (2)   What events are least attended.

              (3)   Where are the events held.

              (4)   What makes cadets attend some events.

              (5)   When do cadets attend events.

              (6)   Why are some events unpopular.

              (7)   How can we make all events popular.

c.   Write down responses to each of the above questions and examine them to see if it is possible to redefine the problem in some way. For example the answer to "When do cadets attend events", might indicate that it is not the events that are the problem but the timing of when they are held.

d.   Write down any re-definitions that are suggested such as "IWWM we hold events so that all cadets can usually attend"

e.   Select the new definition that best describes the real problem.

TECHNIQUES OF IDEA GENERATION

6.   Complex problems require lots of ideas to solve them. Generating ideas in a group sometimes leads to comments like "Don t be stupid" or "That will never work". This type of attitude prevents idea generation   Whatever technique is-used the golden rules of idea generation are:

a.   Defer Judgement. That is don't criticise while ideas are being suggested, wait until the evaluation phase.

b.   Quantity Breads Quality. If lots of ideas are generated then it is more likely that there will be some good ones amongst them.

c.   Think Wild. The wilder the idea the better, unusual ideas lead to breakthroughs away from normal solutions.

d.   Combine and Improve Ideas. Build on each other's ideas, ignore the fact that someone else thought of the basic idea first.

e.   Take a Break. Don't go on for too long, tiredness and boredom are not good for generating ideas.

7.   Two techniques for generating ideas are described below:

a.   Brainstorming. Brainstorming is the simplest way of generating ideas. It relies on different people reacting to the ideas of others in different ways. The process requires a leader to control the group. The problem is stated and everyone is permitted to suggest a solution, usually in turn. The leader has to control the group firmly and a strict rule is that no one is allowed to criticise or make fun of any of the suggestions. The ideas are written down for evaluation later. It is sometimes a good idea to have more than one person taking down the ideas. To save time the leader might put a time limit on the process.

b.   Reversals. "Reversal" is a technique for looking at a problem from opposite points of view. For example solving a problem such as "How can we reduce the number of cadets leaving the Squadron?" might generate a few ideas. Reversing the problem to "How can we increase the number of cadets leaving the Squadron?" will probably generate many more ideas. The ideas are then reversed back to generate possible solutions. You may even find that the Squadron is already doing some of the things to drive cadets away!

IDEA EVALUATION AND SELECTION

8.   The selection of the best solution is not always easy, especially for soft problems. There are several techniques that can be use individually or together to select the best solution.

>   a.   Advantages/Disadvantages. One simple method is to write down two columns stating the advantages and disadvantages of each solution. This works fine until some advantages and disadvantages are more important than others.

>   b.   Scoring or Weighting System. If some advantages are more critical than others then award each a number of points, the critical advantages getting the highest points. Do the same for disadvantages and then add up the two columns: The solution with the highest advantages score and lowest disadvantages score wins.

>   c.   Culling System. One way to select the best solution is to eliminate the poorest solutions and see what is left. This approach is called the culling system. The method involves writing down the pass/fail criteria for the best solution and then eliminating the solutions that don't meet the requirements. This technique is basically the one used when selecting a solution based on meeting all the essential requirements and all, or most, of the desirable requirements.

>   d.   Voting. If the choice of the final solution rests with a group of people then a simple voting system can be used to select the solution. A two round system works best, the first round is used to eliminate the "no hopers" then the group votes again on the remaining options. If the scores are really close then it is possible to go to a third round.

SUMMARY

9.   Problem solving can be a complex process that can be performed by an individual or a team. When working as a team the important point is to remember that the individual wins only if the team wins. Try and put to one side any personal goals of wanting your idea to be chosen.

10.   The four phases of problem solving can be summarised as focus on the definition of the problem, generate possible solutions to the problem, evaluate and select the best solution and then implement it.

SECTION 7

MORALE

INTRODUCTION

1.   The efficiency of a group or organisation can be directly related to the morale of the individuals within it. Building and maintaining a high level of morale is one of the main responsibilities of the leader at all levels. Without morale the group will achieve less and less, and may eventually disband.

2.   Morale can be defined as a person's attitude towards being part of a group or organisation. It reflects the satisfaction and sense of achievement that they get from being part of the group. High morale means a lack of interest in being part of the group ad a possible desire to do something else.

3.   An individual can belong to more than one group, they may have loyalties to their Flight, Squadron, Wing, Region or to the Corps itself. It is possible for an individual to be fed up with their Flight if it doesn't achieve much but still be happy to be part of the Squadron.

FACTORS AFFECTING MORALE

4.   Morale is affected by many causes that all inter-react so it is not normally one single factor which affects morale. The causes can be grouped into two broad classes, Material Factors and Intangible Factors.

5.   <u>Material Factors</u>. Material factors include such things as the standard of accommodation, uniform availability, personal comfort and the type of activities available. Material factors do not always affect morale as much as Intangible ones. The following points show this:

        a   Low material standards can bind a group together and cause high group morale.

        b.   Complaints about material standards are an indication of low morale but not necessarily the cause. Increasing material standards may only raise morale for a short time because the new standards will soon be taken for granted.

        c.   People tend to compare their own material standards with those of others. They often become an issue only if they are lower or it is felt that no one cares about the material conditions.

6.   <u>Intangible Factors Affecting Morale</u>. The intangible factors may be split into three kinds: Leadership, Group and Task.

        a.   <u>Leadership Factors</u>. Leadership at every level affects morale. At the top level leadership gives a sense of purpose, at the immediate level it gives a sense of belonging. A SNCO is able to promote good morale by:

(1)   Providing a sense of purpose by setting and communication standards and aims.

(2)   Providing a sense of belonging by acknowledgement of ability and giving praise.

(3)   The firm but fair application of discipline.

(4)   Keeping the group informed on what is happening.

(5)   Being concerned about the welfare of the individual and team.

(6)   Setting a good personal example.

b.   <u>Group Factors</u>. Group Factors affecting the level of morale include:

(1)   A sense of common aims that everyone can relate to.

(2)   A sense of belonging and identification with the group through symbols and badges emphasising team membership.

(3)   Traditions to live up to.

(4)   Prestige of success and status.

(5)   Stability of the group membership.

c.   <u>Task Factors</u>. If there is a high standard of leadership and strong group ties then morale will be high, providing the tasks and activities of the group members are rewarding and worthwhile. Task factors which affect morale are:

(1)   Performing tasks which contribute to the overall aims of the group and being kept busy in a useful way, for example working towards the Best Flight award.

(2)   Having a sense of achievement through knowledge of progress and results.

(3)   Performing varied activities that are interesting and fit the abilities of the individual while allowing scope for further growth in knowledge and ability.

(4)   Performing activities that have an element of prestige, responsibility and require the use of initiative.

INDICATORS OF MORALE

7.   The level of cadet's morale may be indicated by many symptoms, some of these are described below:

a.   Falling attendance rates of individuals or the Squadron overall.

b.   Attention of the cadets to maintaining standards of tidiness and cleanliness of the Squadron premises.

c.   Standards of turnout, alertness and cheerfulness of cadets.

d.   Difficulty in getting cadets to attend Squadron activities outside normal parade nights.

e.   A lowering of discipline and increased "answering back" by cadets.

f.   A fall in cadet's achievement levels.

SUMMARY

8.   The key to morale is good leadership by attention to all the Functional Needs and a firm but fair application of discipline., It is better to maintain good morale than it is, to-restore it after it has been damaged. Morale is one means of aiding the recruitment and retention of probationer cadets.

SECTION 8

WORKING WITH TEAMS

INTRODUCTION

1.   Groups are formed mainly for two reasons, the first is to make administration of individuals easier and the second is to get complex tasks done more effectively. The group is made up of individuals who have Individual Needs which in turn require Team Needs once they are formed. Different people bring different needs to a group and this sometimes makes it difficult for the group to work effectively. The way a group works together is called "Group Dynamics".

2.   For a group to get things done it is important for it.to work well together. This means each of the individuals should have different strengths and weaknesses to support the various activities the group has to perform. This Section describes the different roles people can use when working in a team and the ideal composition of a team.

GROUP DYNAMICS

3.   A team which is brought together for the first time will naturally not perform as well as a similar group that have been working together for some time. In the ATC this is most noticeable when mixed flights from all Squadrons are formed at Summer Camp. It will still happen for groups formed to do a task at the Squadron but the affects will not be as noticeable or last as long because the individuals will already know each other and share common experiences.

4.   All team members go through certain emotional and team pressures when a group is brought together for the first time. The group will go through five fairly predictable stages as follows:

      a.   Forming.

      b.   Storming.

      c.   Norming.

      d.   Performing.

      e.   Mourning.

5.   The time it takes to go through the above phases will depend on many factors such as:

      a.   The size of the team.

      b.   The common background and experiences shared by the team members.

      c.   The ability of the team Leader to pull the team together.

      d.   The reason why the team has been formed.

e.   The motivation and willingness of the team to perform and succeed.

6.   <u>Forming</u>. When a team is forming its members cautiously explore the boundaries of acceptable behaviour. They are assessing what they can get away with in front of the other team members and also testing the leader's ability both formally and informally. This is, therefore, a key phase for leaders to firmly exert their authority, encourage the team and set standards. In this phase so much is going on within the team that the team will accomplish very little. During the forming stage it is natural for the team members to have the following feeling and behaviours.

a.   Excitement, anticipation and optimism.

b.   Pride in being selected for the team or task.

c.   An initial tentative attachment to the team.

d.   Suspicion about the organisation or activities.

7.   <u>Storming</u>. Storming is probably the most difficult stage the team will go through. The team starts to worry about the lack of achievement and begins to get frustrated, accusational and over-excited. Individuals think they alone can succeed and resist the need to work as a team. During this stage the leader must be consistent, get to know the individuals and relieve any internal conflicts. It is important that standards are maintained, that a good example is set and that the Individual Needs are identified. The following feelings and behaviours may occur during this stage.

a.   Concern and uncertainty about how other team members are doing things.

b.   Sharp changes in attitude to the team and its progress and achievements.

c.   Arguing amongst team members.

d.   Defensiveness and the formation of sub-groups or cliques.

e.   Questioning the selection of the other team members.

f.   Perceived favouritism, tensions and jealousy within the team.

8.   <u>Norming</u>. This stage is used to sort out competing loyalties and responsibilities. The members begin to accept the team ground rules. Emotional conflicts reduce as relationships become less competitive and more co-operative. Suddenly the group begins to realise they can only succeed if they work together and things then start to be achieved. The leader at this stage can give encouragement and address the Individual Needs of status, praise and training as appropriate. The feelings and behaviour that may appear at this stage are:

a.   An ability to criticise constructively.

b.   An accepted membership of the team.

c.   Relief that things are working out.

d.   An attempt to avoid internal conflict.

       e.   A sharing of individual problems.

9.   <u>Performing</u>. By now the team has settled its internal relationships and knows where it stands. They can start to achieve results through knowing each other's strengths and weaknesses and getting the best from the team. At this stage the team just gets on with the task and supports each other as necessary. The leader can now address the Task and Team Maintenance Needs. The type of feelings and behaviour that may exist at this stage are:

       a.   A better understanding of each other's abilities and feelings.

       b.   Satisfaction at working well together.

       c.   An awareness of one's own abilities and a willingness to improve.

       d.   An ability to sort out internal team problems. -

       e.   A strong attachment to the team.

10.   <u>Mourning</u>. No group or team lasts forever, if the task is completed or Summer camp ends the team must be disbanded. The group will want to keep the team in place because so much has been achieved together. This is only natural but the leader's job is to recognise when the team is no longer needed and to provide a ritual ending. It is important for the leader to give constructive feedback to individuals about their performance and contribution tot he team activities. This softens the blow by acknowledging the Individuals Needs. The type of feelings in this stage are:

       a.   A sadness that good times have to come to and end.

       b.   The pledges of long term friendship.

       c   A promise to get together in some way again.

HOW GROUP DYNAMICS AFFECT THE LEADER

11.   All groups go through these stages of team growth. How long it takes to get to the "Performing" stage will depend on the leader, the team members and the situation. Once a leader is aware of the stages of team growth it is relatively easy to determine which stage a group is going through. The leader should give the appropriate support to the team in each stage

12.   A group of cadets forming a mixed flight at Summer Camp will be a harder leadership challenge than a group of cadets back at the Squadron.

> Think back to the Leadership Style and Team Maturity model and decide which leadership styles a leader would go through as the team goes from "Forming" through to "Performing"

TASK BOX 8.1

TEAM CONSTITUTION

13.   For a team to work effectively its members must have a good cross-section of skills and knowledge. This means that everyone is capable of bringing something different to the team. For tasks which require hands-on leadership it is generally accepted that a team of seven or eight is the largest size practical for one leader to handle.

14.   Research has shown that there are nine different roles that people use when working in teams. People's characters will naturally drive them to working in one or two of these roles. This doesn't meant hey cannot perform the other roles, it just means that they have to work harder and given the opportunity they would fall back into the roles they are happier with. The nine roles are described below:

      a.   Leader The leader co-ordinates the group in achieving its task bv using the resources effectively. The leader performs all the functions described so. far in this
ACP

      b.   <u>Shaper</u>. The shaper gets frustrated if things aren't going in the right direction. Shapers can be intolerant of indecisiveness and waffle. They generally have a lot of drive and self-confidence but can be too task orientated, forgetting the social roles.

      c.   <u>Innovator</u>. The innovator is an ideas person who looks for new solutions and can be very intelligent and imaginative. Their imagination sometimes makes them wander off the subject and they can need some control to keep them focussed. They can lose interest with some long tasks. They may have problems in communicating their ideas to the rest of the team.

      d.   <u>Evaluator,</u> The evaluator takes nothing for granted, they naturally evaluate what they are told and what is happening. They are good at reasoning and critical thinking and act as the groups conscience stopping them making stupid mistakes. They can appear over critical to the rest of the team and sometimes a bit boring because they are always so practical.

      e.   <u>Expert</u>. The expert is the source of all knowledge, they differ from the Innovator in that they deal with facts and knowledge and not ideas. The experts superior knowledge can make them unapproachable and they are prone to shoot down the Innovator's ideas on principle.

      f.   <u>Resource Investigator</u>. The Resource Investigator can't do everything themselves but always knows someone who can. They make a point of making contacts and knowing how to get things done in the system. They are naturally extrovert, inquisitive and able to see the possibilities of a given situation. They can sometimes appear over-enthusiastic and a bit wearing to some of the team members.

      g.   <u>Team Worker</u>. The Team Worker likes to keep the team together in total harmony. They are good communicators and supporters of ideas, generally building team spirit. A good listener, very popular and flexible team member. They can appear indecisive because they dislike conflict and competition and don't wish to offend anyone by making a wrong decision.

h.   Worker. The Worker takes the team's ideas ad turns them into practical solutions. They are happy to watch the group but do not always contribute to the task until given something specific to do. They work systematically ad efficiently to ensure tasks are carried out. They have high self-control and self-discipline with realism and common sense. They can be inflexible to changes in the plan and may not accept new ideas.

i.   Completer. The Completer is driven to meeting deadlines and standards. They show a permanent sense of urgency and can appear to worry a lot. They constantly assess progress and monitor the detail of the tasks for mistakes. They can appear impatient and intolerant of others who seem to waste time.

THE IDEAL TEAM

15   The ideal team constitution will depend on the.task being performed by the team. As a minimum the team should contain a leader, a thinker *(Innovator* or Evaluator) and a doer- (Worker). A straightforward and repetitive task would only need a Leader, Workers and Completers. A task that involves some problem solving would need Innovators to come up with the ideas and Evaluators to keep their ideas practical. A large team for a complex task would require a Team Worker to help keep everyone happy and a Resource Investigator to help make things happen.

16.   When a leader gets to know the members of their team they will, having gained some experience, be bale to determine who fits which of the ream roles. This will allow them to manage the team more effectively by using people's natural styles.

17.   One challenge for the leader is that their natural style may not be that of a leader and they will have to work more at performing that role. As a leader you must understand the strengths and weaknesses of each member of your group and not become frustrated or annoyed with the way they are.

18.   When groups are formed the leader must be aware of the growth stages of the team and match their leadership style to the needs of the team.

19.   All people are different and bring a variety of abilities to a team. The SNCO should be capable of recognising these abilities and using them effectively to achieve the teams objectives.

SECTION 8

COMMUNICATION

INTRODUCTION

1.	Verbal and written communication skills are important in the SNCO role. Without them it is difficult to achieve all the tasks in the job specification. By now you should be familiar with verbal briefings, but you also need to be able to give and receive feedback in order to train others and develop your own abilities.

2.	Written communication skills are necessary to provide planning information to the Staff for suggested Squadron visits, exercises, adventure training camps and other activities. Occasionally it may be necessary to give a presentation to Staff or cadets based on the written plans for the activities.

3.	As soon as you stand up in front of others, whether to give a briefing, a presentation or simply to talk, you are communicating through your behaviour as well as your speech. This is sometimes referred to as body language. You need to be aware of what your body language is saying so that it doesn't conflict with your verbal message.

4.	This section, therefore, deals with communicating verbally when giving and receiving feedback, through presentations, the written word and unconsciously through your behaviour and body language.

GIVING AND RECEIVING FEEDBACK

WHAT IS FEEDBACK

5	The definition of feedback is "providing information to someone on how well they have performed a task". If we do something well then the feedback should tell us so, giving us confidence to continue in the same manner. If we do something badly then feedback is equally as important so that we know how to improve our performance.

6.	Feedback helps us to learn about ourselves as well as helping others. Feedback can either be constructive or corrective. Constructive feedback confirms and praises good performance which builds confidence. Corrective feedback identifies areas where performance is below standard. This is of great value to the recipient providing they accept it as a constructive comment on how to improve. The key to giving feedback is to be sensitive about how the recipient may react to what they are being told and wherever possible build on existing performance.

7.	Similarly if you are receiving feedback on your own performance accept it in a constructive manner and learn from your mistakes.

8.	Guidelines for Giving Feedback. In giving feedback you are trying to get an acceptance of the feedback by the recipient and a commitment to change their behaviour The following guidelines may help to get that commitment:

a.   Feedback Must Be Acceptable to the Receiver, Inappropriate and insensitive feedback will only cause resentment, hostility and defensiveness. Giving constructive feedback on successes before any corrective feedback helps to gain acceptance of the message.

b.   Focus on Behaviour Rather Than Personality. It is important to refer to what the person did rather than what they are. It is possible for people to change their behaviour but more difficult to change their personality. For example, to say "You have interrupted three people" is better than saying "You are too fond of your own voice".

c.   Focus on Observations Not Opinions. Observations on what people do and say are factual and can be easily reported and are difficult to argue with. Your opinions on what you saw and heard are open to argument and dispute. It is better to keep to the facts and not opinions.

c.   Give Positive opportunities for Change rather than Value Judgements.. A value judgement is telling someone what they are, for example "You are a bore". This would naturally cause a defensive reaction from the recipient. It is better to offer an opportunity for change by saying "You talk about yourself a lot so I find I tend to switch off after a while". This gives the recipient an indication of how to change by not talking about themselves so much.

e.   Describe Specific Rather than General Patterns of Behaviour. To describe someone as dominant is rather vague. It is better to describe their behaviour specifically, for example "You shout a lot and don't let others give their opinions".

f.   Decide if the Feedback will be Useful to the Recipient. Try to be impersonal and put yourself in the recipient's shoes. You are giving feedback for them not for you. If the feedback is not relevant or will not help, then don't give it.

g.   Don't Overload the Recipient. If you give too much feedback the recipient will be unable to accept it all. Concentrate on the main points and ignore the detail.

h.   Feedback Should be well Timed. To have the best effect feedback should be given as soon as possible after the behaviour is noticed.

i.   Check the Accuracy of Feedback. Make sure the facts are right before you open your mouth. A checklist of desired performance would help.

j.   Ask Questions rather than Make Statements. Questions allow the recipient to come up with their own conclusions and ideas for improvement. Questions force them to think about the issues.

9.   Guidelines for Receiving Feedback. Being able to receive feedback is necessary to improve your abilities and to learn. If you want to improve you must learn to accept feedback on your performance. The following points will help the person giving you the feedback and allow you to get the most out of it.

a. Be Positive Towards the Person Giving Feedback. Giving feedback is a threatening activity and you must recognise the benefit to you. Acknowledge this benefit and signal your willingness to receive feedback. Eye contact, nods and an interested manner will encourage feedback.

b. Listen to the Feedback. This is easy to say but the temptation to reject the comments and attempts to justify your behaviour will be strong.

c. Clarify and Check Understanding. Because feedback is threatening, the feedback may not be clear to you. Make sure you understand by repeating the feedback in your own words to clarify your understanding.

d. Check with Others. Don't accept one person's feedback, try to get other feedback and obtain new ideas on how to improve.

e. Ask for Feedback, if you are not happy with you'r performance or not confident of your abilities ask for feedback.

f. Decide how to use Feedback. It is up to you to accept or reject the feedback. You must decide if you need to change your performance or behaviour and if so how to go about it.

g. Explore Options. If you have decided to try and change your behaviour explore ways in which you might achieve it. Discuss what you are trying to achieve with others and decide how you can gain extra experience ad practice.

h. Thank the Feedback Giver. Even if the feedback was not useful you should thank its provider. If you are to continue developing your ability you will need feedback. For feedback to continue you should encourage the feedback providers.

COMMUNICATION BY BEHAVIOUR

INTRODUCTION

10. The way you behave can be seen by everyone. What cannot be seen are your thoughts, motives, attitudes and feelings. However, all these subtly affect your behaviour. Other people will use your behaviour to form an impression of what you are really thinking. Their impressions will then affect their behaviour towards you. Put simply, their behaviour will directly reflect your behaviour.

VISUAL AND VERBAL COMMUNICATION

11. Visual behaviour will normally back up the verbal communication. It is easy to use the right words and some of the right behaviour, for example, shaking hands and asking "How are you?". If this is done with a bored expression and looking somewhere else then the behaviour is telling a different story to the verbal message. If you want a message to be accepted and fully understood you must make sure your behaviour and verbal messages match.

The Impression you Give	Face, Eyes and Head	Hands and Arms	Body and Legs
Defensive	Not looking at the other person. Avoiding eye contact and looking away if it happens.	Clenched hands. Crossed arms. Constantly rubbing eyes, nose or ears.	Leaning away. Crossed legs Swivelling body and legs towards door.
Anxious	Blinking frequently Licking the lips. Constantly clearing the throat.	Opening and closing hands frequently. Putting hands over the mouth when speaking. Tugging at the ear.	Fidgeting in chair. Crossing and uncrossing legs regularly.
Overbearing or Aggressive	Staring at the other person Wearing a wry smile. Raising eyebrows in mock disbelief. Looking over the top of spectacles.	Pointing the finger. Thumping the table. Rubbing the back of the neck.	Standing if others are seated. Striding around. If seated, leaning back with hands behind the head and legs splayed.
Friendly and Co-operative	Looking at the other persons face. Smiling. Nodding your head when they speak.	Open hands. Hand to face occasionally. Uncrossed arms.	Uncrossed legs, Lean forward slightly. Move slightly closer to the other person. (don't invade their space).

The Impression you Give	Face, Eyes and Head	Hands and Arms	Body and Legs
Confident	Look into their eyes. Don't blink. Thrust chin forward.	Keep hands away from face. "Steeple" your fingers together. If standing do so "at ease".	
Thoughtful	Listen by looking at the other person for 75% of the time Tilt the head to one side slightly.	Hand to cheek. Slowly stroke the chin or pinch the bridge of the nose.	Lean forward to speak. Lean backwards to listen. Keep your legs still.

Table 9.1 - The Impressions that Visual Behaviour Give

12.	This is particularly important as a leader. If you try to sound enthusiastic but your behaviour indicates you are bored then the team will not be fooled by the verbal message. You must always be aware of what message your behaviour is sending. Conflicting verbal and behaviour messages will confuse the recipients. They may draw false conclusions about what you really mean.

13.	Anyone can learn to use their visual behaviour to influence others. Visual behaviour can help or hinder your dealings with other people, the choice is yours.

WHAT IS VISUAL BEHAVIOUR

14.	In general people notice combinations of visual behaviour rather than individual things. People will gain an overall impression from the combination of:

	a.	Facial expression, eye contact and head movements.

	b	Gestures of the hands and arms.

	c	The position of the body and legs.

15.	Table 9.1 gives a summary of the signals that this visual behaviour sends to people.

SUPPORTING VISUAL BEHAVIOUR WITH THE VERBAL MESSAGE

16.   The correct visual behaviour will help you to avoid giving the wrong impression before you even open your mouth! If you are to build on the first impression you must support the visual behaviour with a good verbal message. The following styles will generally produce the responses described.

    a.   Seeking Ideas Leads to Giving Ideas. Seeking ideas is a powerful behaviour. It will almost always result in the recipient providing the information you need (if they have it).

    b.   Proposing Ideas Leads to Objections. Proposing ideas usually causes objections and difficulties rather than support. It is a good way of finding out peoples reservations about a subject. If you want to put forward a suggestion the next way is best.

    c.   Suggesting Ideas Leads to Agreeing. Suggesting ideas is less threatening than proposing ideas. The recipient does not feel forced to accept a suggestion. Suggestion an idea won't guarantee it is accepted but it stands a better chance than proposing it.

    d.   Building on Ideas Leads to Agreeing and More Building. If you build on a person's idea they will generally give you total support, unless they suspect your motives! For some reason people prefer to criticise than build on ideas.

    e.   Agreeing Leads to More Information. If you agree with someone they are more likely to feel confident enough to expand on their ideas and give you more information.

    f   Disagreeing Leads to Defensiveness. Disagreeing will usually cause the other person to become defensive and dig their heels in. It is better to avoid disagreeing directly if you want to change someone's opinion.

    g.   Pointing Out Difficulties Leads to Clarifying. Pointing out difficulties is not quite as bad as disagreeing but can lead to the same defensiveness if you appear aggressive. It is better to seek clarification than to disagree. For example, to say "how do we get around the weight problem" is better than saying "that won't work it's too heavy".

    h.   Informing Leads to Informing. Very often if you provide information on a voluntary basis the recipient will often respond with more information on the same subject. As a SNCO you need to know what is going on. The best way is to tell everyone else what's happening and they will respond in kind.

GIVING A PRESENTATION

INTRODUCTION

17.   We have looked at the techniques of briefing for specific tasks using SMEAC and if you have reached the Staff Cadet classification you will have been exposed to the principles of Instructional Technique for taking lessons. However, it is often necessary to communicate -information to a large number of people at the same time that does not fall into the category of a task brief or a lesson. The usual way of doing this is in the form of a presentation. The aim of this section is to give you the basic techniques of presenting information.

PREPARATION

18.   Before preparing a presentation it is necessary to ask yourself several questions. The answers to these will allow you to continue your preparation in a logical manner These questions are;

    a.   Why Am I Giving The Presentation? This is important because if the audience have asked you to give the presentation then they are already motivated to listen. If, however, you have decided that they will need to know the information then you will need to explain to them why they need to listen.

    b.   How Many People Will Be Present? This decides the size of the room and the type of presentation aids you can use.

    c.   How Long Is The Presentation? How long is it likely to be, or more importantly, how long have you got? This is important because presentations lasting over 45 minutes are difficult to follow unless they are very well structured and have breaks or changes in style or tempo. The average concentration time is only 20 minutes.

    d.   What Visual Aids Are Available? This determines the style of your presentation and how you can get your message across.

    e.   How Long Do I Have To Prepare? This will determine how complex your visual aids can be. If your presentation is to be a "one-off' then it might not be worthwhile putting a lot of time into the visual aids, unless of course you only have one chance to put an important point of view across.

FORMAT OF A PRESENTATION

19.   A presentation is a means of communicating information to a large group. For the audience to fully understand this information the presentation must be clear and concise. The presentation must use both the oral and visual information for the audience to have the highest retention of the content. To help make the message clear it is useful to have a structure to the presentation so that the audience knows what to expect. The usual structure is:

a. Introduction,

b Main Body.

c. Summary.

d. Questions.

20.   Introduction. The introduction serves several purposes. It is necessary to answer the questions that the audience will naturally have, otherwise they will be tempted to ask them during the presentation. The information that should be provided in the Introduction is:

a. Who the presenters are.

b. Any domestic arrangements such as action in the event of fire, location of

c. The Title of the presentation.

d. The purpose of the presentation, that is, why it is being given.

e. Why the presentation is important to the audience, that is, why they should listen.

f. A summary of the topics to be covered.

g. Whether or not you want to take questions during the presentation or at the end. If it is a short presentation (under 20 minutes) it is better to take questions at the end to avoid disrupting the flow of the presentation. For longer presentations it is best to ask for questions after each main point in the main body of the presentation.

h How long the presentation will take.

i. Whether there will be handouts of the material covered. Giving handouts at the beginning allows the audience to make personal notes during the presentation. However, there is a danger they will read ahead and not listen to you. Overall it is better to tell them that a detailed handout will be available at the end of the presentation.

21.   Main Body. The main body of the presentation contains the information you want to get across to the audience. This part of the presentation is like telling a story. It should follow a logical path and draw conclusions at the end of each section. The order in which you present information is often important if you want to avoid confusing the audience. Break the content into facts that the audience must be told, those they should be told and those they could be told if time permits. Break the content into easily understood sections each with four or five main points. A rough rule of thumb is that one main point will probably take three minutes to get across if all the supporting points are made.

22.   Summary. This part of the presentation is important because it draws all the points that have been made together in one summary that allows the audience to review the entire presentation. One danger is that you are tempted to go through all the discussions again, this should be avoided, concentrate on the conclusions from each section of the main body.

23.   Questions. At this point ask for any questions from the audience. Give them time to think before you collect together your papers and leave the podium! Answer any questions politely but in the shortest possible manner. If the audience needs more information they will generally ask. Beware of giving your whole presentation again in answer to one question! If you don't know the answer to a question then admit it. There is nothing worse than a presenter who is obviously waffling through an answer. The best response is "I don't know the answer to that question but I will find out for your afterwards", but you must remember to -do so.

USE OF VISUAL AIDS

24.   The use of good visual aids can treble the amount of information the audience retains. Many different types of visual aids can be used but it is important that they contribute to the presentation and not detract from it. Some examples of visual aids are:

        a.   Blackboard.

        b   Whiteboard.

        c.   Flipchart.

        d.   Overhead Projector.

        e.   35mm slide Projector.

        f.   Video excerpts.

        g.   Models (simple, complex, sectional, inert, working),

        h.   Animated Computer Graphics.

        i.   The real object (if feasible!).

25.   It is most likely that you will only have use of the first four or five types of visual aid at the average Squadron   The amount of time you have to prepare your visual aids and how often the presentation will be given will control the types of visual aid you use.

26.   In general a short, one-off, presentation can be performed on the blackboard, or whiteboard in the same way a lesson might be given. For longer presentations or ones which are given regularly it might be better to use prepared visual aids on a flipchart or OHP.

27.   One drawback of using electrical visual aids is you need power to be readily available together with a screen. In addition the 35mm projector will need to be in a blacked out room to be effective. You will then need a light so the audience can see you and you can see your notes.

28.   It is recommended that, until you gain considerable experience, you stick with the simple visual aids.

<u>PREPARING VISUAL AIDS</u>

29.   Visual aids (VAs) are not a substitute for you presenting the information. The single greatest error made by the majority of presenters is to put up an OHP slide full of text and to proceed to read directly from it, word for word. This is an insult to the audience, as they can read it for themselves. It is also a waste of your time since you could have simply given a handout of the same information.

30.   The visual aids must complement what you are presenting and assist you in getting your message across. Some basic rules for visual aids are:

   a.   <u>Diagrams</u>. Use them wherever possible, remember "a picture paints a thousand words".

   b.   <u>Graphs</u>. These should be used instead of tables of data. Trends are more easily determined through graphs.

   c.   <u>Readability</u>. Use a suitable sized lettering so that the audience at the back can clearly read the VAs.

   d.   <u>Clarity</u>. Don't cram too much information on a single slide. The audience will not be able to pick out the important relationships.

   e.   <u>Bullet Lists</u>. If you have to use bullet lists, limit them to about 5 lines and 7 words per line.

   f.   <u>Borders</u>. Beware of using stylish borders with complex logos. They become boring after the first few slides and detract from the main message.

<u>TECHNIQUES</u>

31.   However good your presentation structure and visual aids are you can still fail to get your message across if your presentation techniques are poor. Good presentation techniques can sometimes improve an otherwise average presentation. There are several things you should do to enhance your presentation.

   a.   <u>Preparation</u>. The presentation will be as good as your preparation, remember the 5Ps (preparation prevents pretty poor performance). There are several points to note in preparing your presentation:

      (1)   <u>Know your Subject</u>. An unsure and under-confident speaker will give the audience similar doubts about the content of the presentation.

      (2)   <u>Rehearse</u>. If time permits run through the presentation to a "friendly" audience who can give constructive criticism ready for the big day. This is especially important if several people are to speak, to make sure the hand overs are clean and precise.

      (3)   <u>Check your Room</u>. Make sure the room is laid out so everyone can see your visual aids. Check and adjust the heating and ventilation, blackout or lighting as appropriate. Ensure all your electrical equipment works and that slides and OHPs are in the correct order.

(4)   <u>Handouts</u>. Ensure you have all handouts prepared in time.

b.   <u>Personal Style</u>. The audience will use what they see and what they hear to interpret the presentation. It is important that you do not distract the audience from the visual aids. A constructive style can be developed by doing the following:

    (1)   <u>Voice</u>. Develop a loud and clear voice, which stops short of a shout. Do not be tempted to rush your presentation in order to say more in the time available or to get it over with quickly! Speak at a normal pace but do try to vary your tone and speed slightly to emphasise points.

    (2)   <u>Eve Contact</u>. Draw your audience into the presentation by making eye contact with each in turn. This gives the impression that you are interested in them and are not just talking to the back wall.

    (?)   <u>Mannerisms</u>. Often nervous, and even experienced, speakers; do not realise they have distracting mannerisms. The favourites are pacing from side to side, jingling change in the pocket, waving arms around and "fencing" with the pointer. Get someone to watch you or, if you can, get a video of yourself presenting to see what you do.

    (4)   <u>Attitude</u>. The audience will adopt the attitude that you use to present to them. If you are off-hand, arrogant or abrupt then the audience will treat the presentation in the same way. Far better to act courteously, sound interested, be enthusiastic and portray an air of humility.

    (5)   <u>Time Keeping</u>. Be aware of the time, the audience will be! If your presentation is intended to last 30 minutes do not take 50 minutes, you are certain to lose the attention of your audience. A time overrun can be due to poor preparation of the presentation. Deviation from the planned content is unstructured and the "ad lib" to expand on existing material is simply time consuming. Good time keeping in presentations, as with getting things done, is down to making a plan and monitoring its progress.

<u>EFFECTIVE WRITING</u>

<u>INTRODUCTION</u>

32.   Like verbal communication, effective writing requires that you write for the recipient and not to show off and impress. If you are writing a memo or a report the objective is to communicate information and get action. The clearer your writing the more likely you are to achieve your objectives.

33   The three key stages to effective writing are:

a.   Plan the document.

b.   Draft the document.

c.   Edit the document.

PLANNING YOUR DOCUMENT

34.   Just like getting things done, effective writing starts with a plan. The main points you should bear in mind when planning are:

     a.   Decide what you are trying to achieve, are you providing information or describing action that is required. Above all, have a clear understanding of your subject.

     b.   Know your reader, you should write so that your reader can understand what you are trying to say.

     c.   Jot down all the points you want to make, in any order, then try and put them in some sort of logical order

     d.   Your document (whether a letter, memorandum or report) should have the following sections.

          (1)   Introduction, what you are writing about.

          (2)   Main body, including description, argument or discussion.

          (3)   Summary, of the main points you have made.

          (4)   Conclusions or recommendations, that arise from your main points.

DRAFTING YOUR DOCUMENT

35.   The best place to start drafting your document is in the main body. Start by deciding all the key points you want to make and the order in which you want to make them. Start writing about each point in turn. Start a new paragraph for each new point, but don't worry too much about the layout at this stage.

36.   When writing you should follow the following guidelines:

     a.   Clarity. Make your meaning clear; arrange the subject in a logical order; be grammatically correct and do not include irrelevant material.

     b.   Simplicity and Brevity. Use the most simple and direct language; avoid obscure words and phrases, unnecessary words and long sentences; avoid by the reader; include only the essential facts and avoid padding.

     c.   Accuracy and Completeness. Be as accurate and complete as possible, if you are not then all you will generate is more communication to clarify your intentions.

     d.   Politeness and Humility. Be polite in the face of rudeness; be patient in the face of stubbornness. Consider your reader as a human being and provide the necessary level of information, but never be patronising.

     e.   Promptness. Make sure your written communications are sent in a timely manner so that they can have the maximum effect.

37.   One you have written the main body it is relatively easy to read through it and decide what you want to put in the Introduction and what has to go in the Summary. You can also list the main conclusions or recommendations that you have made in the main body. Remember, the Summary and Conclusions should not contain anything that is not explained in the main body.

EDITING

38.   However good your writing skills are, your document will not be perfect first time. You should wait as long as possible after writing the document before editing it. This allows your mind to forget the details and you can then read it with the recipient in mind. You should check for structure, information and style. Check that you have kept to the guidelines described above. The major benefit of the written word is that time can be taken to make sure it is as clear and as short as possible.

SUMMARY

39.   Good communication is what holds all the SNCO tasks together. You must be capable of visual, verbal and written communication. Always remember that you are communicating for the benefit of the recipient.

40.   You should use the guidelines for giving and receiving feedback in order to train others and develop your own abilities. Back these guidelines up with appropriate visual behaviour and you will soon learn a powerful communication technique. Table 9.2 gives a summary of behaviour you should avoid and behaviour that helps communication.

41.   Build your confidence in communication skills and you should have the experience to give good presentations.

Hindering Behaviour	Helping Behaviour
Lean away with hands clenched, arms and legs crossed.	Lean forward with hands open, arms and legs uncrossed.
Look at the other person for less than 50% of the time.	Look at the other person for approximately 70% of the time.
Listen silently, interrupt or offer no encouragement	When listening make encouraging noises and nod.
Have a blank expression.	Smile.
Sit opposite the other person.	Sit beside or at 90 degrees to the other person.
Don't use the other person's name or use is artificially.	Use the other person's name as early as possible and in a natural way.
Don't ask questions or ask closed questions.	Ask open questions.
Don't summarise and don't check your understanding.	Summarise what you think the other person has said to you.
Be curt and formal.	Refer back to things the person said earlier.
Ignore the other person's feelings or point of view.	Acknowledge the other person's point of view.
Never indicate your approval.	Openly admit you agree, if you do so.
Criticise other's ideas.	Build on the other's ideas.
Criticise the other person.	Attempt not to judge the other person.

Hindering Behaviour	Helping Behaviour
Disagree first then say why.	If you have to disagree, give the reason then say you disagree.
Be defensive about everything you do.	Admit it if you have made a mistake or don't know the answer.
Be secretive and withhold information.	Be open and provide information voluntarily.
Giving conflicting verbal and visual behaviours.	Be honest with verbal and visual behaviour telling the same story.

Table 9.2 - A Summary of Hindering and Helping Behaviour